An official handbook
The Cape and South Africa / John Noble
with a map, 1878

Gazetteer

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THE CAPE

AND

SOUTH AFRICA.

WITH A MAP.

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THE CAPE

AND

SOUTH AFRICA.

BY

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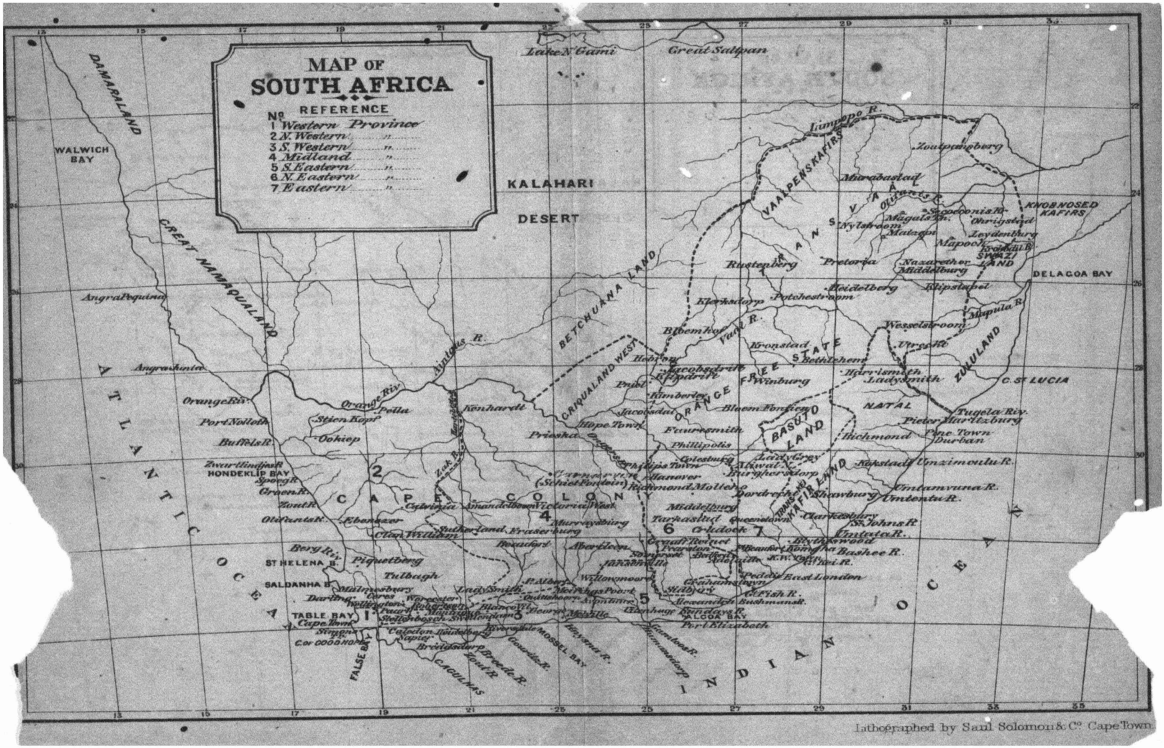
MAP OF
SOUTH AFRICA
REFERENCE
No.
1 Western Province
2 N. Western "
3 S. Western "
4 Midland "
5 S.E.astern "
6 N. Eastern "
7 Eastern "
DAMARALAND
WALWICH BAY
KALAHARI
DESERT
GREAT NAMAQUALAND
BECHUANA LAND
GRIQUALAND WEST
ORANGE FREE STATE
BASUTO LAND
TRANSVAAL
NATAL
ZULULAND
KAFFRARIA
DELAGOA BAY
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Lake N'Gami
Great Salpan
Limpopo R.
Zoutpansberg
Marabastad
Magato
Matlagon
Leydenburg
Mapoch
Pretoria
Rustenburg
Middelburg
Heidelberg
Ripstebel
Potchestroom
Wesselsroom
Marico R.
Vryburg
Bloemhof
Vaal R.
Hoopstad
Bethlehem
Harrismith
Ladysmith
C. St LUCIA
Kimberley
Winburg
Bloemfontein
Aliwal North
Orange R.
Orange River
Port Nolloth
Stien Kopf
Ookiep
Buffels R.
Kenhardt
Hope Town
Prieska
Phillippolis
Fauresmith
Colesberg
Aliwal North
Richmond
Durban
Pietermaritzburg
Tugela R.
Zwartlintjes
HONDEKLIP BAY
Komaggas
Green R.
Zeekoe R.
Olifants R.
Ebenezer
Clan William
Saldanha Bay
Piquetberg
Tulbagh
Malmesbury
Darling
Wellington
Worcester
Paarl
Stellenbosch
Cape Town
Table Mountain
Constantia
Simons Bay
Cape Point
Cape L'Agulhas
False Bay
Hermanus
Caledon
Swellendam
Riversdale
Mossel Bay
George
Knysna
Plettenberg Bay
Port Elizabeth
Uitenhage
Graaff Reinet
Cradock
Middelburg
Somerset
Richmond
Colesberg
Aberdeen
Graaff Reinet
Willowmore
Beaufort West
Prince Albert
Oudtshoorn
Uniondale
Humansdorp
Jansenville
Somerset East
Cradock
Queenstown
Tarkastad
Middelburg
Aliwal North
Dordrecht
Barkly East
Lady Grey
Herschel
Wodehouse
Maclear
Tsomo R.
Umtata R.
Umtamvuna R.
Umzimkulu R.
Kokstad
Richmond
Durban
Pietermaritzburg
Tugela R.
Estcourt
Weenen
Colenso
Newcastle
Dundee
Vryheid
Utrecht
Wakkerstroom
Standerton
Heidelberg
Vereeniging
Potchefstroom
Klerksdorp
Lichtenburg
Mafeking
Zeerust
Rustenburg
Pretoria
Middelburg
Lydenburg
Leydenburg
Barberton
Komatipoort
Delagoa Bay
Lourenco Marques
Inhambane
Beira
Sofala
Quilimane
Mozambique
Angra Pequina
Angra Juanta
Orange River
Port Nolloth
Buffels R.
Zwartlintjes
Hondeklip Bay

the Transkei, and Griqualand East,—which has recently been annexed by Act of Parliament. The incorporation of the Province of Griqualand West, containing the diamond mines, has also been agreed to by Act of the same Parliament. Probably, before another year passes the remaining part of what is now Independent Kafirland, as well as the extensive country stretching north of the Orange River, and including Walwich Bay and Damaraland, will likewise be annexed.

II. Natal, which was proclaimed a British colony in 1843, but did not fairly begin to be colonized until 1849-50. Adjoining it, is the Zulu nation, under Cetywayo, chief of Zululand, who acknowledges his subordination to the Government of Natal.

III. The Transvaal, first occupied in 1838 by Cape Dutch colonists, who in 1852 were guaranteed the right to manage their own affairs and govern themselves; but in consequence of the weakness of the Republic Government, British authority and rule was established over it by proclamation of Her Majesty's Special Commissioner, Sir T. Shepstone, on 12th April 1877.

IV. The Orange Free State, over which British Sovereignty was proclaimed in 1848, but withdrawn again in 1854, in terms of a convention entered into with the inhabitants, who have since that time formed an Independent Republic.

The aggregate population of these European settlements, and the native dependencies, may be estimated at 2,500,000. Of this number, the inhabitants of European descent or birth do not

exceed 400,000 souls. The relative proportion of the white to the coloured population, accordingly, is about one to six. The density of this population varies greatly. In the old-settled district around Cape Town it is largest, being 79·39 to the square mile ; at Port Elizabeth it is 57·88 to the square mile ; over the Cape Colony generally, however, it is not more than 3·60. In the pastoral districts to the north-west there is little more than one person to the square mile; while some tracts are so solitary that in an area of nine square miles a man will not behold his neighbour's face.

This vast but thinly-peopled region has rich and varied natural resources. It is an agricultural, pastoral, and mineral country. It produces corn, wine and wool ; cattle, sheep and horses ; ivory, horns and hides ; ostrich feathers, diamonds ; gold, copper, iron, lead, cobalt, manganese and other ores ; timber and coal ; sugar and coffee ; fruits, tobacco and cotton. This list could easily be increased, by the enumeration of other minor articles ; but even as it is, the above embraces a fair share of the productions essential to the permanent prosperity of a people.

Seventy-two years ago, when the Cape became an appendage of the British Empire, its trade was so insignificant in amount, and promised so little hope of increase, that it was considered as of no importance. The value of the whole of its exports, even in 1821, did not exceed £130,000. Now, in 1878, the external commerce of the country, as represented by the total annual value of South African exports and imports, is not less

than from sixteen to seventeen millions sterling; while the value of its products used in home consumption is also very considerable.

The revenues annually expended by the several colonial governments exceed two millions per annum.

These are facts which speak for themselves as to the material progress and growing importance of the European settlements, whose colonial birth may fairly be dated after the commencement of the present century.

But, for the information of those who are concerned to know more of their conditions and actual prospects, it may be interesting to sketch, in such brief detail as our space will allow, the History, the Physical Aspects, the Population, the Institutions, and the Productions and Resources of the Country.

DISCOVERY AND EARLY HISTORY.

THE southern extremity of the African Continent was discovered by the Portuguese navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, in 1487. Sailing along its western coast, he had reached Cape Voltas, at the mouth of the Orange River, when his little vessels were driven before a furious gale of wind for thirteen days. On the storm abating, he sought to make the land, which he thought still ran north and south. Finding no sign of it, he took a northerly course and came to a bay near the present Gouritz River, on the eastern side of the Cape, where he saw a number of cattle on shore tended by their herdsmen. Still running north-eastward, he came to Algoa Bay, where he landed on a small island near to the shore, and there erected a pillar and cross—the symbol of Civilization and Christianity. Afterwards he sailed as far as the mouth of the Great Fish River, which he named the Rio de Infante, after the captain of his second ship. At this point the clamour and remonstrances of his crews, who were worn with fatigue and alarmed at the heavy seas they encountered, compelled Diaz, with much regret, to turn back.

On his homeward voyage, as he proceeded south-westward, he sighted the notable mountain-range of the Cape Peninsula, which he named "Cabo Tormentoso" or the stormy Cape; but upon reaching Portugal, and making known the fact of his having doubled the Cape, King João II., regarding the circumstance as an encouragement to further search for the ocean-route to India and the lands of the fabled Prester John, gave it the auspicious designation which it has ever since borne—"Cabo de Bona Esperanza"—the Cape of Good Hope.

Two years afterwards (in 1497), the passage to the East was successfully made by another Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama, who, in rounding the Cape, touched at various places on the coast, and was the first to hold intercourse with the native Hottentots of South Africa, whom he found "a pleasure-loving people, given to playing on musical instruments and dancing, which seemed good after its fashion."

During the century and a half succeeding these events, the Cape was used as a temporary place of call by the Portuguese, English, and Dutch, respectively, who engaged in the Eastern ocean-trade. Their ships resorted to its various bays for water and live-stock, which they obtained from the natives. They also made it a means of postal communication: outward-bound vessels buried their letters or despatches and European news at certain spots, indicated by square stones, on which were engraved the name of the ships; and the return fleets carefully searched for these to obtain intelligence from their homes or of

their countrymen. But no permanent settlement was attempted by any of the maritime powers of Europe until 1652, when the Dutch East India Company took possession of Table Bay, establishing a defensive fort, and occupying the lands skirting the foot of Table Mountain, chiefly with the object of having always in readiness supplies for the refreshment of their passing ships.

Jan Anthony van Riebeek, the first governor or commander, arrived under the shade of Table Mountain on the 5th of April 1652. He was accompanied by about a hundred soldiers and servants, who formed the garrison and constituted the embryo colony. In obedience to instructions, they raised vegetables and grew corn. They propagated the vine, the orange, and the olive. They reared pigs and horses. They bartered brass beads, brandy and tobacco for the cattle and sheep of the Aborigines, and occasionally sent out small expeditions to penetrate into the Interior, with a view to make search for more profitable commodities and to learn "the secrets of Africa."

The system of colonization Van Riebeek initiated, and which was followed by his successors in the government of the Cape under the rule of the Dutch East India Company, was of a very close and restrictive character.

The first citizens and farmers—or "burghers" and "boers," as they were termed in the early despatches—were mostly discharged soldiers and sailors. Preference was given to married men of good character, and Protestants. [illegible]

required of them that they should reside in the country for ten years, and their children for twenty years, so that they might be entirely weaned from Holland, and come to regard the Cape as their Fatherland. They were also bound to deliver their produce and their cattle only to the Company, and on terms to be fixed at the discretion of its officers. In fact, it was stipulated that the Company was to be the master in every way—monopolising the importations, productions, and trade of the community, altogether for its own advantage.

In 1670, the free colonists numbered only eighty-nine, but they increased year by year as new men—Dutch, Germans, Danes or Flemings—were permitted to take their discharge and try their fortune as colonial proprietors. In 1684, several farmers and mechanics, and some young women of poor but respectable parentage, arrived from Holland. And in 1688 an important and very valuable addition was made to the population by the introduction of between two and three hundred French and Piedmontese Refugees, who sought in exile for the freedom of conscience and liberty which their own countries denied them.

The Archives of the Colony, still preserved in the public offices in Cape Town, contain a register of the names of many of the Huguenot emigrés, who at this time emigrated to the Cape. Among them are those of Du Plessis, Malherbe, Russou, Fouché, De Villiers, Du Toit, Malan, Marais, Jourdan, Le Roux, Le Grange, Labuscagne and others, whose descendants are now scattered over the whole of South Africa.

These immigrants were placed on the lands along the Berg River Valley, where they soon taught the waste to yield them daily bread, and within two years became a self-supporting community. Besides cultivating

> The cornfields green and sunny vines,

with which they had been familiar from childhood, they planted French names throughout the district; and the titles of such estates as Le Parais, Lamotte, Cabrier, Le Petit Rochelle, Normandy, Rhone, Champagne, Languedoc and the like, which frequently occur in the neighbourhood of the Paarl, Stellenbosch, and Wellington, remain undying memorials of the localities where they fixed their abodes. The refugees also endeavoured to preserve their language, and taught it to their children; but the latter were discouraged by the Dutch Company from using it, and in the year 1709 its perpetuation in any official communications or proceedings was publicly forbidden. When the French Astronomer, Abbé la Caille, visited the Cape in 1752, he observed the language was rapidly on the decline and that the children of the refugees were becoming amalgamated with their Teutonic brethren. Le Vaillant, the naturalist, in 1780, found amongst them but one old man who understood French. By the close of last century all knowledge of it was lost among the descendants of the Huguenots.

The history of the country under the Dutch East India Company's rule shews that there

a continuous but vain struggle on the part of the free burghers to obtain some relaxation of the capricious and oppressive fiscal and sumptuary enactments of the government, which not only excluded them from all participation in foreign trade, but hampered them in all their internal transactions.

Some of the inhabitants, unable to endure the system of government which prevailed, moved away from the neighbourhood of the Company's garrison. They crossed the mountain ranges and passed into the inland plains, named by the Hottentots "Karoos." There they obtained a subsistence by imitating the native mode of life, killing game and depasturing cattle. Others soon followed their example. The authorities, although at first opposed to the movement, after a time discovered it to be of some advantage, inasmuch as it increased the food supplies of the settlement. They therefore began, in 1714, to give their formal sanction to the extension of the territory by issuing "loan leases," or revocable squatting licences, to any one who preferred a request for them, but always subject to the condition of resumption of the property at any time by the Company. Wherever there was disposable land, whoever chose to do so might apply for it; and if after temporary occupation, he found difficulty in securing permanent waters, or in feeding his cattle, he immediately enlarged his range, and moved further into the Interior. It was in this manner that the early Cape "Boers" adopted the nomad [illegible] of "trekking," which has been continued

by their descendants along the border of the European settlements until the present time.

From 1714, the venturous burghers spread themselves eastward and northward, for a distance of full 500 miles from Cape Town, until in 1780, the Great Fish River was publicly declared to be the boundary between them and the native inhabitants of the Interior. The total white population then numbered but 6,600 men, 1,931 women, and 1,287 children. They were a mere handful of people. Around them were their slave domestics, and the aboriginal Hottentots, or Bushmen, and Kafirs, with whom they were frequently in collision. Watching their flocks, or seeing their herdsmen go out with them in the morning and bring them home safe at night, was their chief occupation. The remainder of their time was passed in trivial household employments or frequently-repeated devotional exercises, and a little variety was sometimes sought in the chase. Such was the joyless state of existence of the pioneer Boers. Much as they valued religious worship, they had no clergyman within some hundred miles of them, and for marriage or baptismal rites and ceremonies had to travel all the way to the capital at Cape Town. They desired to give their children instruction, but there was no provision whatever for public education in the country. Sometimes they were permitted to pray for the discharge of soldiers and sailors from the Company's employment, and to obtain their services as "meesters" or teachers "on loan," as it was termed. But the privilege was found to be occasionally abused, by pe-

who endeavoured by such means to procure tradesmen on their farms ; and in 1793 a proclamation was issued by the Government requiring proofs that the applicants really wanted teachers, "in order to prevent covetous persons from releasing tailors, shoemakers, &c., under the name of schoolmasters."

Among other evils resulting from the dispersion of the colonists, were the disputes and collisions, and consequent alienation of feeling, which took place between the Europeans and the coloured races. There was a class of "freebooters" on each side of the border, whose lawless proceedings led to acts of reprisal and violence, frequently marked by unjustifiable severity and cruelty. The Government had no available force to exercise authority or maintain order. A state of anarchy and turbulence thus arose in the inland districts, which ended in many of the Boers openly rebelling and declining to render obedience any longer to the Dutch East India Company.

Political events in Europe at this very period fortunately overturned these monopolist rulers of the Cape. The occupation of Holland by the French Revolutionists made the Prince of Orange (the Stadtholder) a refugee in England ; and the English Government, with the concurrence of the Prince, sent out a fleet under Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, which forcibly took possession of the Colony in the name of His Majesty the King of Great Britain on the 16th September 1795.

At the peace of Amiens, the Cape of Good [illegible] was again restored to Holland, in 1803;

but the East India Company was replaced by the Batavian Republic, who sent out, as their representative to the Colony, the Commissioner-General De Mist, and Governor-General Janssens, who at once set about establishing a new and efficient administration,—"no longer dependent upon any commercial body," but such as might tend to reconcile the burghers who had rebelled against the unpopular Company, and also soothe the continued animosities between them and the Aborigines.

Scarcely three years had passed, however, when the sovereignty of the country was changed once more. On the renewal of the war in E[illegible] England determined upon the [illegible] Cape of Good Ho[illegible] an[illegible] appointed force under [illegible] After a brief but hono[illegible] General Janssens, on [illegible] surrendered the Colony—embarked and sent straight [illegible] English Government.

At the peace of 1815 the Kin[illegible] lands, by treaty, finally ceded [illegible] with other possessions in perp[illegible] British Crown.

UNDER BRITISH DOMINION.

During the short period of British occupation from 1795 to 1803, General Craig, Earl Macartney, Sir F. Dundas and Sir G. Young were governors. They introduced some beneficial changes in the administration of public affairs—amongst others, abolishing the monopoly of trade and giving free scope for the development of the resources of the country.

Their successors, after 1806, also applied themselves to initiating improvements and reforms. Earl Caledon, in 1811, established an annual circuit court in the inland districts, which had the effect of checking the lawless conduct of the borderers, and assuring the well-disposed of the protection of Government. He opened up postal communication between the capital and the most remote town, which was then that of Graaff-Reinet. He issued regulations, with the humane and benevolent object of ameliorating the condition of the Hottentots who were in the service of the farmers. Previously to this (in 1807), the slave trade had been abolished, which was likewise not without its good effects on the habits and morals of the inhabitants.

In 1812, Governor Sir John Cradock placed the tenure of land upon a permanent footing. The holders of "loan-leases" were allowed to convert their holdings into perpetual-quitrent properties, thus enabling them to hold the same hereditarily, and to do with their lands and tenements as they thought proper.

Sir John Cradock also freed the eastern border from the invasions and depredations of the Kafirs, who during 1793 and 1803 had intruded into the country between the Fish and Sunday's Rivers. The basis of his action, on this occasion, was to secure the undisturbed establishment of the territory surrendered by the Dutch; and he held that security and good order could not prevail if any description of persons were suffered to remain within that territory who were not subject to the regulations of the State, or who lived uncontrolled or obeyed the mandates of their chiefs or any other authority.

Early in 1812 an armed force, composed partly of troops and partly of burghers, drove the invaders across the Fish River; and for some time afterwards a line of forts guarded the boundary, until the Kafirs finally settled themselves in their own country. The site of one of these forts is now covered by the city of Graham's Town.

The tract thus cleared remained for some time unoccupied—the Government adopting the policy of interdicting all intercourse between the Colonists and Kafirs, fearing that such intercourse would have a tendency to produce disputes and animosities. But soon afterwards the expelled

tribes, under the inspiration of a native "prophet" named Lynx, made another invasion into the Colony, boldly attacking the military head-quarters at Graham's Town, where they were repulsed with great slaughter, by a handful of British troops under Colonel Wilshire.

Lord Charles Somerset, who succeeded Sir John Cradock, visited the frontier in 1817 and 1819; and, while there, had a conference with the Kafir Chief Gaika (who was recognized as paramount west of the Kei), with whom he finally concluded an agreement that, as it appeared impracticable to secure the repose of the colony so long as the Kafirs had access to the forests of the Fish River, the Chumie and the Keiskamma waters should be the boundary limit, and that the intervening space should be "neutral ground."

Lord Charles during his first visit was so highly impressed with the appearance of the unoccupied country west of the Fish River, which he described as "unrivalled in the world for its beauty and fertility," that he invited colonists to reoccupy it, and also recommended the introduction of a body of British emigrants to form a settlement there.

Prior to this, the only accessions to the Colony from the United Kingdom had been a few merchants and traders and the civil and military officers appointed to the station. Great expectations were entertained of the introduction of English emigrants into the new land of promise in South Africa. The Imperial Parliament voted £50,000 towards the scheme of colonization, and

out of 90,000 applications for passages, 4,060 were accepted.

The vessels conveying the emigrants arrived in the Colony in March and April 1820. The majority of the settlers landed at Port Elizabeth, Algoa Bay, which was then nothing more than a small fishing village, surrounded by bare sand hills, with a military post (Fort Frederick) crowning the height above the Bakens River. From there they moved on to their locations in the newly-named division of Albany, where after many struggles and vicissitudes, they finally succeeded "as well as emigrants have done in any part of the world."*

Lord Somerset during the period of his administration manifested an active interest in the material development of the Colony, but in political and social matters he was most despotic. He interfered with the freedom of the Press, summarily placing it under a censorship; and he refused to sanction any public meetings for the discussion of public affairs. Against these and other tyrannical acts, the newly-arrived settlers protested and appealed to England. The unpopularity of the local government led to the appointment of an Imperial Commission of Inquiry, who investigated the condition of the Colony on the spot.

*The *Nineteenth Century*, in a recent paper on "England and South Africa," observes:—"The thriving trade of Port Elizabeth, the energy that has spread out in manifold enterprises from Algoa Bay to the banks of the Orange River, the courage and endurance which have met over and over again the surge of savage warfare, all these are parts of the fabric built up by the colonists of 1820."

This resulted in many important changes. An Executive Council was appointed to assist the Governor with their advice. A Supreme Court of Justice and Circuit Courts were established under Royal Charter. Some remaining monopolies, connected with the collection of part of the revenues, were abolished. Civil commissioners or magistrates were placed in charge of divisions or districts, in the room of the courts of "landdrosts" and "heemraden," composed chiefly of the burghers. Free schools were opened in the principal towns, for the purpose of facilitating the acquirement of the English language by all classes of the colonists; competent teachers, chiefly from Scotland, arrived to carry out this object; and, in 1827, the language of the Mother Country was ordered to be exclusively used in all official proceedings and business.

In 1834 colonization was fairly at work, and many of the British settlers on the frontier, who had by that time established themselves comfortably, were regarding their state and prospects with satisfaction, when suddenly a storm of Kafir invasion burst upon them. The whole border was overrun by savage hordes engaged in pillage and plunder. Hundreds of farm houses were burned, property was wantonly destroyed, and many individuals were murdered.

Governor Sir Benjamin Durban, aided by the British troops and the colonial burghers, ultimately subjugated the Kafirs, and, as an indemnity for the past and a security for the future, His Majesty the King's Sovereignty was proclaimed over the defeated tribes as far as

the Kei River. At the same time a Zulu tribe, known as the Amafingo (numbering over 16,000 souls), who were in servitude in Kafirland, were released from their bondage, and located in the Colony, where they have since proved faithful subjects, and now constitute to a great extent the working peasantry of the Eastern Districts.

But the Governor's proclamation extending the colonial border to the Great Kei River, was unfortunately disapproved of in England, and ordered to be reversed—the allegiance of the chiefs and tribe who had submitted being renounced, and the limits of colonial authority moved back to where it was prior to 1819, along the dense thickets of the Fish River.

In 1846, when Sir Peregrine Maitland was Governor, war again broke out, occasioning a great sacrifice of blood and treasure before peace was restored.

In 1851, during the governorship of Sir Harry Smith, the Kafirs resumed hostilities, massacred some of the military grantees, and, joined by a number of discontented, rebellious Hottentots, maintained a guerilla warfare in the wooded fastnesses of the Waterkloof and Amatolas. This outbreak was finally brought to a termination by the submission of the hostile chiefs to Sir G. Cathcart in 1853, and the proclamation of Kaffraria (with the Kei as its eastern boundary) as a British dependency, governed by British functionaries.

Previous to the Kafir inroad at the close of 1834, various causes had contributed to create dissatisfaction in the minds of the Cape-Dutch

colonists throughout the northern and eastern frontier districts. They disliked the provisions of the Ordinance of 1828 which placed the Hottentots and other persons of colour on a footing of equality under the law with themselves. They complained of the unfairness of the King's Order-in-Council of 1834, for the emancipation of their slaves. They found their barbarian neighbours, the Kafirs, continually robbing and plundering them, and no adequate protection was afforded by the Government. And to these causes of discontent there was added the losses they sustained during the war. This maddened them into a determination to escape from the English rule, just as their forefathers had done from the Dutch East India Company. They made preparations to "trek" and seek for "fresh fields and pastures new" in the wilderness.

During 1835-36 the exodus of these people went on. The number who voluntarily expatriated themselves has been variously estimated at from 5,000 to 10,000. They sold their properties for whatever they could realise—many a good estate being hastily exchanged for a wagon and team of oxen and some for even less value,—and went off with their wives and children into the country north of the Orange River. "Their adventures and exploits," says Mr. Froude, in one of his letters, on South African Affairs, "form one of the most singular chapters of modern history."

One party led by a highly-respected colonist, Pieter Retief, re-crossed the Drakensberg and

entered Natal, where many of them were cruelly massacred by the army of the Zulu potentate, Dingaan. The survivors and their friends afterwards took signal vengeance upon this treacherous savage. They formed an expedition of about 600 gallant and resolute combatants under a leader named Pretorius, and proceeded to the chief's stronghold. There they routed the Zulu force 12,000 strong, and drove Dingaan as a fugitive out of his country, placing MPanda, one of his younger brothers in his stead, as chief of the remnant of the tribe, and proclaiming all the country from St. John's River to St. Lucia Bay as conquered territory. These pioneers then attempted to set up a Republican Government of their own; but the Governor of the Cape, Sir George Napier, in 1842 sent a military force to take possession of Natal in Her Majesty's name, and after a brief struggle the Emigrant Boers were forced to yield to British authority.

Some of the most obstinately-disaffected emigrants again "trekked" back over the Drakensberg into the country between the Orange and the Vaal Rivers. There they were more or less uncontrolled until 1848, when, at the solicitation of some of the inhabitants, Governor Sir Harry Smith proclaimed Her Majesty's Sovereignty over them. A few months afterwards a number of the disaffected, led by Pretorius, rose in arms against the Government, and expelled the British magistrates; but they were soon encountered and defeated, by a detachment of troops under Sir H. Smith, at Boomplaats. Pretorius and

most of his followers escaped, and moved northwards of the Vaal River.

The Orange River Sovereignty continued to be a source of trouble, as disputes arose with the native tribes, and especially with the Basutos acknowledging the powerful chief Moshesh, against whom it was found necessary to move a large body of troops under Sir G. Cathcart, in 1852, when the battle of the Berea was fought, and Moshesh sent in his submission.

In consequence of these circumstances Her Majesty's Government, in 1853, resolved to abandon all the territory northward of the Orange River; and a special commissioner, Sir George Russell Clerk, was sent from England to carry out this policy. The Boers in the Transvaal under Pretorius had previously been granted independence, by an agreement known as the Sand River Convention of 1852. In February 1854, the Orange River territory was formally ceded over to its inhabitants, who thereupon formed an independent Dutch-speaking Republic, governed by a president, assisted by a "Volksraad," or Assembly, elected by the people.

Up to this period, Kafir wars and border disturbances did much to give South Africa a bad name, and to make it supposed to be an unsafe place of residence for European settlers. These unfortunate occurrences also greatly retarded the development of the Parent Colony itself; for the various Governors had their attention occupied chiefly with frontier affairs, to the exclusion of matters necessary to promote and aid its social

and material progress. The resources and capabilities of the country were thus allowed to lie dormant; and, as a consequence, the Cape of Good Hope was altogether in the background, twenty-five years ago, when the glittering attractions of Australia and California set agoing the great movements of labour and capital from the Old World to the New.

The colonists had, a long time previously, asked to be allowed to have a voice and share in the management of their own affairs; but various difficulties stood in the way until 1853, when the privilege of representative government* was at length granted. A Parliament elected by the people was assembled, for the first time, in 1854, in Cape Town. With the assistance and counsel of an able and popular Governor, Sir George Grey, measures were devised for securing the peace of the frontier, and for developing the internal resources of the country. Hitherto the means of communication between the several townships and the sea ports had been limited, only a few of the mountain ranges were passable for the interchange of commodities, and most of the inhabitants in the remote parts were in a comparative state of isolation, living, as some of them still do, in a very primitive and patriarchal style. The Legislature at once sanctioned a liberal expenditure on roads and bridges. New divisions were created, additional magistrates appointed, and numerous villages rapidly sprung up, forming

* The constitutional changes effected will be found specially described in the chapter on Political and Civil Institutions.

centres for respectable communities. Public schools were opened everywhere. Immigration from Great Britain was encouraged. Railway construction was commenced, and telegraphs were introduced. The public lands were surveyed and thrown open to public competition. Lighthouses were erected on the coast, improved accommodation provided for shipping at the various ports, and a harbour of refuge and docks constructed in Table Bay.

The commerce of the Cape, during the first ten years after the re-establishment of peace and the first meeting of the Parliament, indicated a remarkable development of its resources. In 1854, its exports were valued at £764,461. In 1864 they more than trebled, amounting to £2,594,594. The quantity of wool produced increased in this period, from 8,567,457 lbs. in 1854 to 36,296,698 lbs. in 1864. The imports of goods in 1854 were only £1,548,036 and in 1864 they had advanced to £2,471,339.

But a still vaster change took place in the circumstances, means, and transactions of the Colony during the succeeding decade.

In 1865, the province of British Kaffraria was annexed and incorporated, forming the divisions of King William's Town and East London. In 1868 the Basutos under the late Chief Moshesh were accepted as British subjects, and in 1871 their territory became annexed as a dependency of the Cape. In 1867, diamonds were discovered singly, and scattered along the course of the Orange and Vaal Rivers. Soon afterwards diggers swarmed over the country in search of

the precious gems, and the existence of diamond-mines, of almos fabulous wealth, was proved beyond doubt. The territory where they were found came under the British Crown in 1871, and in terms of an enactment passed in 1877 is this year to be incorporated with the Cape Colony.

Together with these additions to the previously extensive area of the Parent Colony, an advance was made in its political condition. In 1872, Responsible Government was established, by which the administration of public affairs is now conducted, as in England, by a Cabinet possessing the confidence of the Legislature. This was the natural sequel of the Constitution granted in 1853. One of the first projects inaugurated by the Ministry chosen under the new system of fully developed self-government, was the construction of railways in different directions inland from the seaports, extending over distances amounting in the aggregate to 800 miles, and involving an estimated outlay of £5,000,000.

Another important political change is at present under consideration and approaching a settlement, namely, the consolidation of the various European communities in South Africa, either by a Legislative Union or Confederation. The Imperial Parliament, in 1877, passed a Permissive Act giving to the several Colonies and Dependencies, and the Free State, the power to unite under the British Crown, and so to form one strong government, from the shores of Table Bay to the Limpopo or the Zambezi.

The prosperity of the Cape, and the advance it has already made, in consequence of the extraordinary yield of the diamond mines, combined with the steady increase of the staple productions of the country, are shewn by the commerce of the past few years. Taking 1874, —for the purposes of comparison with 1864,*— we find the Exports reached £4,233,561 besides a large unregistered exportation of diamonds estimated that year at £2,000,000. The quantity of wool exported was 42,620,481 lbs. of the value of £2,948,571. The Imports in the same year amounted to £5,558,215. The annual public Revenue was above a million and a half sterling. Twenty years before (in 1854) it was not £300,000.

During the five years beginning with 1872 and ending with 1876, the Exports from the Cape Colony,—besides those of Natal, which raised an aggregate of £20,606,256, exclusive of diamonds, which at the lowest computation were £1,000,000 per annum. The quantity of wool exported was 207,037,802 lbs. of the value of £14,069,043. The Importations during these five years amounted to £26,364,404, the greater part of which was from the United Kingdom.

Such undoubted evidences of commercial progress and development have, at last, drawn the attention of the world to the Cape of Good Hope and the adjacent possessions in British South Africa, whose natural resources and future prospects are now acknowledged to be as promising as those of any portion of the globe.

* Ante p. 27.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE:

ITS PHYSICAL ASPECTS AND DIVISIONS.

THE Cape Colony Proper is bounded northward by the Orange River; eastward by the Great Kei River; and southward and westward by the Indian and South Atlantic Oceans.

But those limits do not comprise the whole area over which the Cape Government exercises its authority.

North of the Orange River, and adjoining the Free State, there is the Province of Basutoland, which was annexed to the Colony by Act of the Legislature in 1871; also, the territory of Griqualand West (better known as the Diamond Fields), annexed by Act passed in 1877; and the region on the West Coast, commonly known as Great Namaqualand and Damaraland, including Walwich Bay, is virtually under Colonial jurisdiction, although not as yet incorporated, with the sanction of the Crown.

Eastward of the Great Kei, the chief part of the territory extending to the Umtamvuna and Umzimkulu Rivers, the boundary of Natal, has been annexed. It is variously known as the Transkei, Fingoland, Galekaland, Tambookieland,

Bomvaniland, and No-Man's-Land, or Griqualand East. A portion of the seaboard, however, is still occupied by an independent tribe—the Ama-Pondos—who retain authority over the entrance to the Umzimvooboo, or St. John's River.

The approximate area of the Colony Proper is 199,950 square miles; and its Dependencies, as above described, comprise at least another 100,000 square miles.

The surface of the country generally is very broken, and divided into hills, valleys, mountains and elevated plains. From the sea-board to the interior, it rises step by step by a series of well-defined mountain chains, which run mostly in an east and west direction, parallel to the coast and to each other.*

At its south-western point, the Cape Peninsula, there is a grand mountain pile, forming as it were a mighty outpost guarding the entrance to the African Continent. Table Mountain rises, almost perpendicularly, to a height of 3,852 feet above Table Bay. It is flanked on the right by the remarkable Lion's Head, 2,100 feet high, and on the left by the picturesque Devil's Peak or Wind Berg, 3,315 feet high, while in the valley between, as if in the lap of the mountain, the city of Cape Town is spread out with its suburbs extending for fourteen miles from Sea Point to Constantia.

* The best representation of the geographical and topographical features of the country is the "Map of the Cape Colony and neighbouring territories," compiled in the office of the Colonial Surveyor-General, which has recently been engraved by Mr. Stanford, Charing Cross, London, and is published by the Colonial Government.

A flat sandy isthmus, about twenty miles broad, connects this with the Drakenstein and Hottentots Holland Mountains, which stretch southward to Cape Hanglip at the entrance of False Bay, and northwards in a somewhat irregular series through Clanwilliam and Namaqualand to the Orange River. The vine-growing valleys of Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, Paarl, Twenty-four Rivers and the Olifant's River are along the nearest slopes and spurs of these mountains, while the undulating plains reaching from them to the seaboard are extensive grain-producing districts. The Berg River runs through a portion of this country, from Fransche Hock to St. Helena Bay, over a course of 63 miles.

Immediately behind the first range, is another having its highest point (6,840 feet) in the Winterhoek, near Tulbagh. This forms the principal watershed of the west ; the drainage on one side running to the Olifant's River, which empties itself into the Atlantic, and on the other to the Breede River, which flows into the Indian Ocean. The fertile valleys of the Warm Bokkeveld, Worcester and Hex River are in this tract. The mountains extend northward, as the Bokkeveld and Cedarberg mountains, the latter being so named from the cedar-tree *(Widdringtonia Juniperoides)* growing in its kloofs and recesses.

Proceeding eastward, the same range divides into two chains. One is known as the Hex River, Langebergen and Outeniqua mountains, running parallel to the east coast and subsiding

near Cape St. Francis. This part of the country has been occupied for two or three generations by the descendants of the early colonists. There are many towns and villages established, such as Worcester, Robertson, Caledon, Swellendam, Heidelberg, Riversdale, George, and Mossel Bay, and the lands are occupied as corn farms, vineyards, orchards, tobacco plantations, sheep and cattle pastures and ostrich enclosures. From George and the Knysna to the Tzitzekamma, near Humansdorp, it is pretty well wooded, the forests running for a distance of 170 miles with a varying depth of from ten to twenty miles from the sea.

The other chain forms the elevated terrace bounding the Great Karoo, and enclosing the smaller Ghannaland Karoo, Tradouw, the district of Ladismith and the fertile valley of Oudtshoorn. This chain, which is noticeable by its continuously high and frequently serrated outline, diverges from the Hex River Heights behind Montagu, and is known successively as the Great Zwarteberg, Antoniesberg, Elandsberg, and the Cockscomb or Great Winterhoek, rising to 5,967 feet in the Uitenhage division, there joining the hilly ridges of the Zuurberg, which die away some distance beyond Graham's Town, near the mouth of the Great Fish River.

The undulating plains beyond the Zwartberg are termed the Great Karoo. Throughout this tract, for a distance of nearly 200 miles, there are comparatively few farms, and these are situate at considerable distances apart. Water is scarce, and most of the rivers except during and after

thunder-storms are dry, or furnish but a few brackish pools. There are no trees, except along the river beds; the ground is barely covered by the thinly-scattered stunted bushes, and the whole prospect in arid seasons is most dreary and uninviting. Yet when fertilized by rains the soil is of the most productive quality; the herbage rushes into vegetation with a rapidity that looks like enchantment, and the surface of the country becomes carpeted with heaths and flowers of every colour and hue. The sheep walks of Beaufort West, on the north-eastern side of this Karoo, are considered equal to any in the Colony.

The Roggeveld and Nieuwveld mountains, presenting a bold escarpment of flat topped hills, border the Great Karoo, and form the higher table land of the Calvinia, Fraserburg, and Victoria West divisions, sloping away to the basin of the Great Orange River. This plateau extends eastward to the still higher range of the Camdeboo, and the series known as the Sneeuwbergen, in the Murraysburg, Graaff-Reinet, and Richmond divisions. The general aspect of all these divisions is dry and sterile, the herbage being chiefly the aromatic Karoo bush, yet for grazing purposes they are excellent, and large flocks of merino sheep are depastured throughout them. The highest point of the Roggeveld is 5,150 feet, but the Compassberg, or Spitzkop of the Sneeuwbergen reaches to 7,800 feet above sea level. This constitutes the central watershed of the Colony. The drainage of the Roggeveld and Nieuwveld mountains on one side is carried off by the Riet, Hartog, and Zak Rivers, which

afterwards form the Hartebeeste and then join the Orange River ; while on the other side the Buffels and the Gamka rivers, carrying with them the drainage of the Karoo and the Gouph, pass through "kloofs" or gorges in the Zwartcberg range and unite as the Gouritz River, which empties itself into the sea, south of Mossel Bay. From the Sneeuwberg again, the Ongars and the Zekoe rivers running north, feed the Orange River, while the Kariega which afterwards changes to the Gamtoos, and the Sundays River, and the Great Fish River, all flow south-eastward to the Indian Ocean.

From Graaff-Reinet an arm of the central mountain chain, under the names of the Tandtjesberg and Zwagershoek runs in the direction of Somerset East, where it forms a loop joining on to the Great Winterberg mountain 7,800 feet high, commanding a magnificent view of what is by far the most beautiful part of the Colony—the grassy hills and dales, dense bush, and wooded gorges of the Eastern Frontier Districts. Below the Winterberg, the lesser heights of the Didema, Katberg, Elandsberg, Gaikaskop, the Hogsback and the Amatolas stretch in a more or less continuous line, terminating with the Buffalo and Kologha ranges, in the division of King William's Town. From different points along this terrace, issue the waters which form the Koonap, the Kat, the Chumie, Keiskamma, and Buffalo Rivers, and also some of the tributaries of the Great Kei River which separates the Colony from Kafirland Proper.

The grassy lands stretch northwards towards

Queen's Town at an elevation of 3,000 to 4,000 feet; and then the country rises by another steppe to the Stormberg mountains, 6,000 to 7,000 feet high, where are situate the border districts of Wodehouse, Aliwal North, Herschel, and Burghersdorp. These Stormberg mountains on their westward side are called the Bamboesbergen, on the north Wittebergen, while their prolongation eastward is known as the Quahlamba or Drakensberg range, forming the boundary between the coast territories of Kafirland, Natal and Zululand and the inland territories of Basutoland, the Free State and Transvaal. The range attains an altitude of over 10,000 feet at a point named the "Mont Aux Sources." It is there divided from the minor range, called the Malutis, in Basutoland, by the Orange River, which takes its rise from the "Mont Aux Sources," and flows westward across more than two-thirds of the Continent to the Atlantic Ocean, covering a course of about 1,000 miles. This river receives the drainage of the Transvaal, the Free State, Griqualand West, Bushmanland and Great Namaqualand, and its hydrographical basin is computed to include an area of 325,000 square miles. Notwithstanding the extent of its main artery and the immense quantity of water flowing along it, its outlet on the West Coast is quite unnavigable except for boats; while the rapids, falls and islands, which are met with higher up in its course are insuperable barriers to its ascent by any vessels, for purposes of transport, beyond a comparatively short distance.

Along the seaboard the ports or harbours

available for commerce are—on the West Coast, Table Bay, False and Simon's Bays, Saldanha Bay, St. Helena Bay, Hondeklip, Port Nolloth, Angra Pequena, and Walwich Bay ; and on the East Coast, Port Beaufort, Mossel Bay, Knysna, Plettenberg's Bay, Algoa Bay, Port Alfred, and East London.

Table Bay is the chief port, where the large mail steamers, now running weekly between England and the Colony, arrive and depart on their outward or homeward voyages. It offers to shipping the shelter of a breakwater and land-locked docks, with the advantages of a plentiful water supply, quayage, storage, work-shops and patent slip, to which will shortly be added a large graving-dock now in course of construction. The entrance to the inner basin is 100 feet wide, with a depth of twenty-one feet at low water and between twenty-six and twenty-seven feet at high water. The cost of these docks which were designed by Sir John Coode, amounted to about £500,000 sterling ; and the revenues at present derived from them by the Harbour Commission, under whose direction they were carried out, are over £50,000 per annum. The number of vessels entered "inwards" alone at this port, in 1877, was 749, gauging an aggregate tonnage of 470,130 tons. Provision has been made for enlarging the present accommodation whenever the increase of trade requires it. Sir John Coode suggests two plans, either or both of which may be carried out. The one is an extension of the dock seaward taking in an area of 15 acres on the east side of the Breakwater ; the other

is the construction of an inner basin at the back of the present one, enclosing an area of 12 acres. Since these harbour works were officially opened by His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh in 1870, not a single instance of loss of life arising out of a serious disaster to any vessel, due to stress of weather, has occurred in Table Bay.

Simon's Bay is the naval station and dockyard for Her Majesty's vessels.

Mossel Bay, situate midway between Table and Algoa Bays, is from its geographical position the natural port for the central coast divisions of the Colony.

Algoa Bay the chief port for the eastern and midland districts, and the Interior, is an open but safe roadstead with good holding ground, and the loading and discharging of vessels are very expeditiously done by means of lighters and surf-boats and gangs of native labourers. But this method, besides being costly, is subject to occasional interruptions from the state of the surf, and the Government has endeavoured of late to devise means for better accommodation to meet the requirements of the large trade of the port. What that trade is, may be judged of by the fact that the gross tonnage "inwards" and "outwards" has increased three-fold in ten years, *i.e.*, from 202,737 tons in 1866 to 659,030 tons in 1876. The value of the imports has increased within the last ten years from £958,746 to £2,416,691, and of the exports from £1,790,375 to £2,222,454. The value of the wool exported annually from Port Elizabeth has been £2,054,279, taking the average for the seven years ending

1876. The charges by the four boating companies for landing and shipping goods have amounted to upwards of £65,000 per annum, taking the average of the three years 1874-75-76. The average charge made by the companies is 7s. per ton or from about one-third to one-fourth of the rate of freight from England. Sir John Coode, after a personal inspection of the port and careful and mature consideration of the subject, has proposed a series of works, which he says will afford sufficient deep water berthage and safe landing accommodation. His design, which is estimated to cost in the aggregate nearly a million of money, contemplates the construction of an iron viaduct extending seaward for a distance of 3,000 feet, and at its outer end a breakwater pier 2,000 feet in length in a N. by E. direction, having a depth of 33 feet at the south or inner end and 36 feet at the outer end at low water of spring tides.

At Port Alfred (the Kowie River Mouth) there is good holding ground at the outer anchorage; and a steam tug and lighters for loading and discharging, or for bringing vessels of moderate draught (nine to ten feet) into the river to the wharves, a mile from the entrance, where stores, a bonding warehouse and custom houses are to be found. The works in progress and recommended by Sir John Coode are intended to secure the full strength of the river currents in scouring the channel, and to obtain ultimately a width of 170 feet and a depth of 12 feet at low water.

There being a complaint that Captains ex-

perienced a difficulty in making Port Alfred, Sir John Goode directed his attention to the subject and found it to arise chiefly from the great variations in the distance off from the shore of the line separating the main L'Agulhas current running to the westward, from the counter-current which runs to the eastward so that on some occasions the current will be favourable and at others adverse although the vessel may be at the same distance from the shore and going in the same direction.

East London (at the Buffalo River Mouth) is another river harbour, where works under the direction of Sir John Coode are in progress. These works are intended to remove the "bar" and keep clear the passage to the deep reaches inside, where there is sufficient water to accommodate any number of vessels. Training walls, which will form quays, are being built inside the river so as to narrow the channel and thereby increase the scour, and a breakwater of concrete blocks, like that of Portland, is being constructed in the form of an arm outside, to prevent the sea from checking the action of the river and driving the sand back upon the bar. When the projected works are complete, it is calculated a depth of water will be secured, where the present bar is, of from 20 to 21 feet at high water.

Lighthouses are maintained at the various ports and headlands, viz., at the entrance to Table Bay, Robben Island, Green Point and Mouille Point. At the entrance to False Bay, Cape Point, 816 feet above high water. In Simon's Bay, on South Roman Rock. At Cape

L'Agulhas (the Needles) the extreme southern point of Africa. At Mossel Bay, on Cape St. Blaize. At Cape St. Francis, one is now in course of completion. At the entrance to Algoa Bay, there are lights at Cape Receife, at Port Elizabeth (harbour light), and at Bird Island. There are also lights at Port Alfred and East London.

The Colony is now divided for electoral purposes into seven Provinces, and thirty-two Divisions, and these are again subdivided for fiscal and magisterial purposes. The following table shews the several provinces and divisions represented in the two Houses of Parliament, the districts to which Civil Commissioners and Magistrates are appointed, and the chief Towns and villages:—

Western Province.

Electoral Divisions.	Divisions and Districts.	Towns and Villages
CAPE TOWN		Cape Town. Green Point.
CAPE	Wynberg ...	Cape Town. Papendorp. Mowbray. Rondebosch. Newlands. Claremont.
	Simon's Town ...	Wynberg. Constantia. Kalk Bay. Simon's Town. Kuil's River. D'Urban.
STELLENBOSCH ...	Stellenbosch ...	Stellenbosch. Somerset West. Eerste River.

Electoral Divisions.	Divisions and Districts.	Towns and Villages.
PAARL	Paarl	Paarl. Wellington. Franschehoek. Roubaix.
North-Western Province.		
MALMESBURY ...	Malmesbury ...	Malmesbury. Darling. Hopefield. St. Helena Bay. Riebeek West. Mamre. Groenekloof
PIQUETBERG ...	Piquetberg ...	Piquetberg. Porterville. Goedverwacht.
NAMAQUALAND ...	Namaqualand ... Hondeklip Bay...	Springbokfontein. Hondeklip Bay. Port Nolloth. Bowesdorp. Leliefontein.
CLANWILLIAM ...	Clanwilliam ... Calvinia	Clanwilliam. Calvinia. Brandvley. Katkop.
WORCESTER ...	Worcester ... Tulbagh	Worcester. Ceres. Tulbagh. Steinthal. Gouda. Bergville. Hermon. Wolseley. Prince Alfred.
South-Western Province.		
SWELLENDAM ...	Swellendam ... Robertson ...	Swellendam. Heidelberg. Zuurbraak. Malagas. Port Beaufort. Robertson. Montagu. Ladygrey.

Electoral Divisions.	Divisions and Districts.	Towns and Villages.
RIVERSDALE ...	Riversdale ...	Riversdale.
	Ladismith ...	Ladismith.
		Amalienstein.
CALEDON	Caledon	Caledon.
		Genadendal.
		Villiersdorp.
	Bredasdorp ...	Greyton.
		Bredasdorp.
		Elim.
		Napier.
OUDTSHOORN ...	Oudtshoorn ...	Oudtshoorn.
		Cango.
		Calitzdorp.
GEORGE	George	George.
		Blanco.
		Hopedale.
		Uniondale.
		Schoonberg.
		Pacaltsdorp.
	Uniondale ...	Lyon.
	Mossel Bay ...	Aliwal South.
	Knysna	Plettenberg's Bay.
		Melville.
		Belvidere.
		Newhaven.
		Redbourne.
		Edmundton.

Midland Province.

GRAAFF-REINET ...	Graaff-Reinet ...	Graaff-Reinet.
	Murraysburg ...	Petersburg.
		Aberdeen.
		Murraysburg.
BEAUFORT ...	Beaufort ...	Beaufort.
	Prince Albert ...	Prince Albert.
	Willowmore ...	Petersburg.
		Willowmore.
VICTORIA WEST ...	Victoria West ...	Victoria West.
		Prieska.
	Fraserburg ...	Fraserburg.
	Carnarvon ...	Onderste Doorns.
		Sutherland.
		Carnarvon.

Electoral Divisions.	Divisions and Districts.	Towns and Villages.
RICHMOND...	Richmond	Richmond.
	Hope Town	Britz Town.
		Hope Town.

South-Eastern Province.

ALBANY ...	Albany ...	Graham's Town.
		Salem.
		Sidbury.
	Bathurst ...	Riebeek.
		Bathurst.
		Port Frances.
		Port Alfred.
VICTORIA EAST ...	Victoria East ...	Alice.
	Peddie ...	Aberdeen.
		Peddie.
UITENHAGE ...	Uitenhage ...	Uitenhage.
	Jansenville ...	Jansenville.
	Humansdorp ...	Humansdorp.
	Alexandria ...	Hankey.
		Alexandria.
		Paterson.
PORT ELIZABETH...	Port Elizabeth ...	Port Elizabeth.
		Walmer.

North-Eastern Province.

FORT BEAUFORT ...	Fort Beaufort ...	Fort Beaufort.
		Post Retief.
		Adelaide.
		Heald Town.
	Stockenstrom ...	Eland's Post (Seymour)
		Hertzog.
		Balfour.
		Philiptown.
ALBERT ...	Albert ...	Burghersdorp
		Molteno.
		Sterkstorm.
		Ventersburg.

Electoral Divisions.	Divisions and Districts.	Towns and Villages.
SOMERSET EAST ...	Somerset East ...	Somerset East.
		Groote Vlakte.
	Bedford	Been Leegte.
		Pearston.
		Bedford.
		Glenlynden..
CRADOCK	Cradock	Cradock.
	Tarkastad ...	Tarkastadt.
	Steynsburg ...	Steynsburg.
		Maraisberg
COLESBERG ...	Colesberg ...	Colesberg.
		Phillipstown.
	Hanover... ...	Hanover.
	Middelburg ...	Middelburg.

Eastern Province.

KING WM.'S TOWN	King Wm.'s Town ...	King Wm's Town.
		Berlin.
	Stutterheim ...	Breidbach.
		Braunsweich.
	Komgha	Frankfort.
		Stutterheim.
		Komgha.
EAST LONDON ...	East London ...	East London.
		Panmure.
		Potsdam.
		Maclean.
QUEEN'S TOWN ...	Queen's Town ...	Queen's Town.
	Cathcart... ...	Whittlesea.
		Cathcart.
ALIWAL NORTH ...	Aliwal North ...	Aliwal North.
		Ladygrey.
	Herschel... ...	James Town.
		Herschel.
WODEHOUSE ...	Wodehouse ...	Dordrecht.
		Barkly.

The electoral divisions of Griqualand West, as part of the Cape Colony, have not yet been proclaimed.

CLIMATE; BOTANICAL GEOGRAPHY; GEOLOGY.

The Cape Colony, generally speaking, is not a hot country. The greatest heat of calm summer days is not more than in the hottest parts of Europe; and these are extraordinary, and last but for a short time. The prevailing winds and the dry atmosphere temper such excesses, rendering the warmest day quite supportable; and the balmy coolness of the nights are surpassingly agreeable and enjoyable. Nearly all the old travellers and visitors testify to the beauty of the climate, and in the statistics of the Army Medical Department it stands as one of the healthiest in the world. This has led to its being highly recommended as a sanitarium for European invalids.

Dr. Ross, the health-officer of the Port of Cape Town, in a paper on the subject says:—"The best period for arrival is towards the end of August. A long sea voyage is an admirable introduction to the lovely scenes which September, at the Cape, yearly produces. The fields are then covered with verdure: the hills and plains are brilliant with patches of bulbs and

heather in full bloom ; and all nature is gay with the surpassing freshness and variety of spring. The air is then truly intoxicating ; while the purity and transparency of the atmosphere is such as literally to astonish those who have been only accustomed to judge of distances through the medium of haze, and who can scarcely be brought to realise the fact that mountains fifty miles off are as plainly visible as if within half-an-hour's walk, and to the naked eye as minutely traceable as by aid of telescope."

The Seasons come in reverse order to what they do in the northern hemisphere, and may be thus defined :

AT THE CAPE.		IN EUROPE.
December		June,
January	*Summer.*	July,
February ...		August.
March		September,
April	*Autumn.*	October,
May		November.
June		December,
July	*Winter.*	January,
August		February.
September ...		March,
October	*Spring.*	April,
November ...		May.

There is, however, a slight difference in the period of the commencement of seasons in the Western and Eastern portions of the Colony ; those in the West being generally a month earlier than in the East.

The mountains which run diagonally across the country from N. W. to S. E. also divide it into

two climatic districts. In the one, the north-west winds, which prevail chiefly during the winter season of the West, bring regular and copious rains extending inland as far as the boundary of the Karoo plains, and along the seaboard as far as the Gouritz River. The Eastern side of the Colony, on the other hand, receives its rains in the spring and summer, from the moisture brought by the trade winds from the Indian Ocean. A portion of this moisture is carried over the mountain ranges to the central basin, or Midland and Northern districts, where the rains usually occur in summer, attended by thunderstorms. This inland tract of country is subject to recurring and sometimes prolonged drought.

At the Royal Observatory, close to Cape Town, a meteorological register has been systematically kept, which shows as a result that the mean temperature of the air there throughout the year is about 61° 26′ Fahr., in the shade, the hottest days being in January, with an average temperature of 68° 92′, the coldest about July, with an average temperature of 54° 03′. Elsewhere, in the Colony, the observations have not been extended over any long period, but they are sufficiently reliable to serve as an index to the climate.

At Worcester the highest temperature registered in the month of January is 105°, and the lowest in June 29° 5′. At Port Elizabeth the highest in January 92°, and the lowest in August 41°. At Graham's Town the highest in February 106° 5′ and the lowest in August

32° 5′. At Graaff-Reinet the highest in December 105°, and the lowest in June, 28°. At Aliwal North, on the Orange River, the maximum in December is only 93°, and the minimum in June 20°. On the higher plateaux of the Karoo, and the Stormberg, the atmosphere is most bracing. The air is dry and in summer warm, but the nights are never oppressively so. During the winter months, snow lies on the high mountain ranges and ice is formed on any water exposed to the air over-night. On the coast-lands, however, the warm ocean current coming down from the Tropics moderates the temperature ; and during the season, if there are any frosts, they are not sufficient to kill, or even damage, any sub-tropical plants that may be under cultivation.

It will thus be seen that the visitor may select within the borders of the Colony, according to the locality and the time of the year chosen, whatever temperature or weather may be thought desirable for enjoyment—whether pleasant, fine, and dry, or wet and inclement—extreme heat, or bracing frost and snow—such are the transitions obtainable as at the different seasons the seaboard is exchanged for the inland plains or the high mountain lands.

The rainfall in the neighbourhood of Cape Town, is nearly equal during the year to the average fall at Greenwich or Edinburgh. During twenty years of observation recorded at the Royal Observatory, the mean quantity was upwards of 24 inches—the lowest being 18·8 inches in 1844,

and the highest 36·7 inches in 1859. But the impression of a wet or dry year sometimes depends less on the quantity than on the number of days on which rain falls, so as seasonably to promote the germination and growth of vegetable productions.

Beyond the first range of mountains the supply of moisture diminishes, and some inland tracts will be for twenty or eighteen months without even a passing shower. From the registers, we find the fall at Bishop's Court and Wynberg, along Table Mountain, as high as 44 and 39 inches per annum respectively; while at Worcester it is only 11 inches; at Bredasdorp 14 inches; at Amalienstein, 13 inches; at Concordia, Namaqualand, about 9 inches; at Lower Nels Point (Beaufort West), 9½ inches; Goliath's Kraal, near Graaff-Reinet, 13½ inches; at Port Elizabeth, 26 inches; at Graaff-Reinet, 14 inches; and at Aliwal North about 25 inches. It increases towards Kaffraria, and on to Natal, where the rains are intertropical. Even the driest districts of the Colony are at times visited by deluging thunderstorms, and each year the rivers tumble into the sea as much water as might convert the whole country into corn-fields, vineyards, orchards, and rich pastures, if only proper measures were taken for using it.

The climate of the Colony, thus partaking of the peculiarities of the cold temperate and tropical zones, exercises a decided influence upon the character and distribution of its vegetable productions. Hence the Cape Flora includes

representations of orders or families of plants, usually widely separated by different latitudes, as well as an almost incredible variety of entirely indigenous forms. The probable number was estimated by the late Dr. Pappe, Colonial Botanist, in 1860, at 18,000; and he gives the following account of their classification and geographical arrangement:—

"The family which predominates over all others is that of the *Compositæ*. It constitutes the sixth part of the whole number of its flora, is nearly equally distributed through all provinces, and amounts to 182 genera and 1,593 species. Many of the former, and the greatest part of the latter, are quite peculiar to the land, and not a few of them, such as the everlasting-flower, the *gazanias, othonnas, arctotides*, and others gladden the eye by the brilliancy of their hues, and the grace and variety of their forms.

"Next to them, the leguminous tribe occupies, in as far as numbers are concerned, the second rank in our flora, comprising between 500 to 600 species, two-thirds of which belong exclusively to the Western Province; it forms about the thirteenth part of the whole of South African vegetation. *Indigofera, Præralea* and *Aspalathus*, are the prominent and most numerously represented South African genera of this order.

"The third great natural family to be noticed in this place, refers to *gramineæ*, or grasses. This tribe is pretty equally distributed between the two principal divisions; but the species occurring in the Eastern Province and Natal, partake of a more social character than those of the west.

Grasses form about the one-and-twentieth part of South African vegetation, and embrace 95 genera with 359 species. It is remarkable that only six of the genera are truly South African, while the remainder are scattered wide and far over various portions of the globe.

"None, however, of the three orders named exert so great an influence upon the flora as to bestow distinctive physiognomical features to the country. This is effected by plants limited in their range of dispersion, but which, within certain bounds, surpass all others in originality of form, variety, and luxuriance of growth.

"The most prominent amongst these are the *Proteaceæ*, so named in allusion to the diversity their genera present. This group, as distinguished by its forms, as remarkable for its geographical limits, consists of small trees or bushes, with evergreen, stiff, simple or divided leaves and flowers, which are spiked, panicled, or more frequently clustered in heads. Their favourite stations are dry, stony, exposed places, mountain slopes, or sandy localities, and their number amounts to 11 genera and 288 species. The majority of these inhabit the Western Province exclusively; some, however, such as P. *grandiflora*, *mellifera*, and several others, are more widely dispersed, and a few are restricted within the precincts of the Eastern Division alone.

"After *Proteaceæ*, the numerous heaths, which cover vast tracts of uncultivated lands, attract our attention. This large genus contains shrubs, with rigid, linear, entire leaves; and its species

are equally interesting for the variety of the forms of their flowers and for the brilliancy of their tints. The total number of South African heaths, hitherto known, amounts to 410 species, two-thirds of which are peculiar to the western parts of the Colony; towards the east they sensibly decrease, and reach their limit at Natal, the high mountains of which produce one solitary representative of this extensive and beautiful genus (*Erica Alopecurus*). Not less characteristic of the Cape flora are *Mesembryaceæ* and the genus *Stapelia*. The former, more familiarly known as the Fig Marygold tribe, includes herbs and shrubs with fleshy, variously-shaped opposite leaves, and usually large, solitary terminal or corymbose flowers of almost every colour. De Candolle describes 307 species as belonging to the South African flora, but many more are likely to exist. *Stapeliæ*, of which 111 species are already known, possess succulent, leafless, angular and often warty stems, much like those of some cacti or euphorbius. Their mostly large but lurid blossoms, when expanded and exposed to the rays of the sun, emit a most offensive, nauseous smell, resembling that of putrid animal matter, whence their vernacular name of *carrion flowers* has been derived. Both have their principal stations in dry, rocky, situations, and particularly in the wide plains of the Karoo, where they occur in such abundance as to give a particular character to the vegetation of those solitary wastes.

"Predominant are, in some parts of the Western Division in addition to the orders just

named, the Bucchu family, or *Diosmeæ*, known for their strong peculiar odour; the Wood Sorrel tribe, or *Oxalideæ*, which, during winter, adorn our hills and fields with a profusion of delicate, conspicuous, flowers; the many *Pelargonia*, with their fragrant foliage and showy corollas; and last, though not least, the group of *Restiaceæ* or Rope Grasses, useful alike as a barrier to the shifting sand, and as material for many purposes of domestic economy. *Terebinthaceæ*, *Irideæ*, and *Asphodeleæ*, less restricted in their range, are pretty regularly distributed through all parts of the Colony.

"Leaving this zone, and approaching the East, we feel surprised at the change which takes place in the nature of vegetation. Already in the border district of George, this alteration begins with verdant hills, vertile lawns, and aboriginal forests, rich in excellent timber, yet the farther we move, *Proteaceæ*, *Ericas* and *Restiaceæ* become rarer in proportion, and make room for families which gradually merge into the sub-tropical flora of Natal. Grassy pastures admirably adapted for the breeding of sheep alternate with impenetrable masses of arborescent, evergreen, often succulent shrubs, once the cherished haunts of herds of elephants and other huge herbivorous beasts; and almost everywhere the gigantic *Euphorbia canariensis*, with its fluted, pillar-like, prickly stem, is seen along with thorny *Acacias*, the *Speckboom*, (*Portulacaria afra*), tall handsome aloes, and a profusion of fleshy plants in the greatest variety. These in conjunction with the splendid *Strelitzia*

regina and *juncea*, the beautiful *Tecoma capensis* the curious elephant's-foot (*Testudinaria elephantiper*) and the palm-like *Lycadeæ*, or Kafir bread trees, the modern representatives of an extinct antidiluvian tribe, are forms which to a certain degree, express the character of the vegetation of the Eastern Province. The most prominent and numerous vegetable orders found in those regions comprise, besides grasses and compositae: *Malvaceæ, Capparideæ, Celastrineæ, Sarindaceæ, Acanthaceæ, Ardepiadeæ, Euphorbiaceæ, Amaryllideæ*, &c., many of which spread towards Natal, where they are joined by the still more tropical types of *Rhizophoreæ, Anonaceæ, Sterculiaceæ, Malpighiaceæ, Connaraceæ*, and Palms."

The general Geological structure of the Colony is now pretty accurately determined, although but a comparatively small portion has as yet been systematically surveyed. The first to throw light upon the subject was Mr. A. G. Bain, a native of Scotland, who settled at the Cape in early life and for many years had the superintendence of the great mountain passes constructed throughout the country. In 1852, he framed a geological map of part of the Cape Colony, which has since been improved upon and extended by Mr. E. J. Dunn in his recent map (published by Mr. Stanford, London) shewing the geological features of South Africa to the 24° of S. latitude. This latter map embodies the observations of Mr. Wyley, Dr. W. G. Atherstone, Dr. Rubidge, Mr. Pinchin, Mr. T. Bain, Dr. Sutherland, &c.

In character and composition, most of the rock formations are analagous to those of other regions.

Commencing with the Cape Peninsula, we have granite, apparently as an intrusive rock, interpenetrating the superincumbent metamorphic clay-slates and schists, which over a great extent form the littoral or shore beds of the Colony. The granite and clay-slates are the underlying formation throughout most of the Western Districts.

Above the clay slate is a great sedimentary deposit of quartzose sandstone, with, in some places, imbedded pebbles, such as form the upper portions of the Table Mountain, Lion's Head, and also the Hottentots Holland and Caledon Ranges. Both the clay-slate and this sandstone have as yet proved unfossiliferous.

Resting conformably on the sandstone, in the second range of mountains, are a series of argillaceous shales and coarse red sandstones, which contain numerous fossils, chiefly trilobites, brachiopods, and encrinites, characteristic of the Upper Silurian or Devonian rocks. These fossiliferous deposits extend along the mountains northward from the Gydow, behind Ceres, to the Cedarbergen, and eastward along the Hex River heights and the Zwartebergen towards Uitenhage.

On the West Coast, from the Olifant's River northwards, the prevailing formation is granite and gneiss, passing into metamorphic schists as we approach the Orange River. It is in this tract the valuable Namaqualand copper mines occur.

A peculiar intrusive felspathic rock, locally termed the "copper-bearer," runs through the gneiss in a nearly east and west direction and the cupriferous veins are distinctly associated with it. Portions of these lodes are extremely rich in ore.

The hills and plateau of Bushmanland are of gneiss capped with schistose and quartz rocks. Rose quartz is not uncommon; garnets are plentiful in particular belts; amethysts are met with; and veins of beautiful fibrous quartz, and hills of tourmaline and jasper, occur throughout the schists along the Orange River basin.

Metamorphic rocks similar to the Namaqualand schists also appear on the east side of the Colony at George and Knysna, associated with gneiss, and penetrated by granite veins.

A peculiar brecciated formation is met with at the southern end of the Karoo—not very far from Karoo Poort. It forms parallel belts trending in a waving line from the Bushman Karoo of Namaqualand southward, and then eastward along the Great Karoo, the Zwarteberg, and the Zuurberg, through Kafirland and Natal, and even to the neighbourhood of Delagoa Bay, thus covering a length of considerably over 1,000 miles. Its characteristic feature in the Karoo is its "trap-like" appearance—when weathered bristling over the flats and ridges like inclined gravestones—and the number of pebbles and great fragments of other rock imbedded in it. It has been named by various observers, a claystone porphyry, a trap ash, a metamorphic conglome-

rate, and a boulder clay. Its origin has been attributed to igneous action, to glacial action, and to aqueous distribution ; and it still remains a vexed question.

Succeeding the Devonian fossiliferous rocks, and overlying the breccia or "trap conglomerate" at the southern end of the Karoo, comes what Mr. Wyley considered to be the carboniferous, but what Mr. A. G. Bain has termed the great lacustrine formation of South Africa. It extends from the boundary of the gneiss, in the Calvinia division on the west, to the Zwarteberg and Zuurberg on the east, and spreading over the midland and most of the eastern districts, stretches northwards across the Orange and the Vaal Rivers. For hundreds of miles together, this formation presents the same physical features—extensive plains, covered by reddish sandy loam, bounded or diversified by ridges of trap rock, or flat topped hills of shale and sandstone—the capping being as a rule sheets of trap rock and sandstone. A characteristic of these shales and sandstones is, that though they have been subjected to intrusive influences on an extensive scale, the beds still retain their horizontal position, even though great masses of igneous matter have penetrated between and crossed them at all angles. In the lower series of these beds have been exhumed the fossil remains of the gigantic Dicynodon reptilia, which have been described and catalogued by Professor Owen, the eminent palæontologist.

"Before the continent of Africa as it now is, existed," says the Professor, "these animals

lived, died, and propagated their kinds through untold generations. From their jaws and dentition they were herbivorous, and from what is known of their limbs more terrestrial than aquatic. The old lake-basins represented by these deposits much exceed in extent those inland fresh water seas which recent explorers have now discovered for us in the centre of the Continent." As to the age of these reptiles, the Professor adds, the present phase of evidence is that they are not later in time than the Trias, and probably lived in the Palæozoic periods.

On these horizontal Karoo beds are situate the diamond-mines of Kimberley and Du Toits Pan in Griqualand West. They are distinctly defined circular areas which have the appearance of "throats" or "pipes" through which the volcanic and diamondiferous material has been erupted. The sandstone and shales which form the containing rock, are entirely barren of diamonds ; while the mine itself is composed of serpentinous matter, cementing together fragments of broken rocks, limestone, shale and basalt, and particles of minerals, such as garnet spinelle, pyrites, mica, and titanic iron-ore, with occasionally, sparkling precious diamonds.

Along the course of the Vaal and Orange Rivers, diamonds of the finest quality are found scattered among the boulders and beautiful pebbles forming the extensive drift deposit of these river beds. The pebbles consist of agate, jasper, chalcedony, white quartz, carnelian, and spinelle garnets, all rounded and well polished. The survey of the Stormberg mountains, which

has just been concluded by Mr. E. J. Dunn, the Government Geologist, clearly establishes that these stones have had their sources in the amygdaloid rocks forming the higher parts of the Drakensberg or Quahlamba range.

The Stormberg Mountains are the coal-beds of the Colony. Rising abruptly at the boundary of the Queen's Town division, they form the tail end of the great mass of strata which, under the name of the Drakensberg, constitutes the principal mountain range of South Africa. Mr. Dunn classes them in four groups, rising in succession as follows:—1. "Coal measures;" 2. "Red beds;" 3. "Cave sandstone;" 4. "Volcanic rocks." These sub-divisions, he says, are recognisable throughout the great range, occurring not only in the Stormberg, but also near Harrismith, and in ascending Van Reenen's Pass, from Natal to the Orange Free State.

The coal-measures, about 1,000 feet thick, rest immediately and conformably on the Upper Karoo beds; the principal deposits as yet found being at from 300 to 400 from the base.* Most of the seams are layers of coal, alternating with dark brown shales. Seams are also met with in sandstone. The most important outcrop yet observed, lies between the Doorn and Indwe

* Mr. Dunn says:—From the stratagraphical position of the coal measures, it is clear that coal outcrops will be found right round the base of the Drakensberg, and equally clear that the seams are thicker and the quality of the coal better the further they occur to the N. E. from the Drakensberg. In Natal, at Biggarsberg, a solid seam of coal 8 feet thick occurs. In the Transvaal, equally thick seams of superior coal are found in the Highveld. In the higher parts of Basutoland coal will not occur, the beds at such altitudes being destitute of it:

Rivers, Division of Wodehouse, 4,700 feet above sea level. The section shews 6 feet 6 inches of coal in 13½ feet; and a level driven in 120 feet proved that the coal thickened a few inches in that distance.

The rocks above this, are termed the "red beds" and overlying them again, is the "cave sandstone"—a massive bedded rock, met with at a height varying from 6,600 to 7,000 above sea level. Very grand scenery results from the weathering of these rocks. Caves of large size occur in them—one being 330 feet wide at mouth, 144 feet deep, 60 feet high at entrance, and it is said will hold 3,000 sheep.

On the top of the "cave sandstone" some volcanic products are imbedded; and wherever the hills attain a height of 7,000 feet above sea level, almost everywhere to the east of the Stormberg, Spruit, a capping of volcanic rocks is met with. In several places, as at the top of Vaalkop (7,250 feet, the highest altitude of the Stormberg) the layers of volcanic material are so distinct as to impart a banded appearance, such as stratified rocks usually present. In section these shew, above the sandstone, compact bedded lavas, pink stratified ash, amygdaloid (zeolite) and vesicular lava.

In the tract he examined, Mr. Dunn has found three unmistakeable old volcanoes, which were the centre of eruptive activity in the Triassic Age, as represented in South Africa. Two of them still preserve a crater-like shape—one is locally known as Glatkopjes, and the other as Telemachus Kop.

Many circumstances previously not at all clear, says Mr. Dunn, are explained by the existence of these rocks on the principal watershed of South Africa. The pebbles of agate, chalcedony, quartz, calc-spar, and the pipestem amygdules, are all *in situ* in the volcanic ejectamenta on the summits of the Drakensberg. The centres of eruption also help to throw light on the diamond-bearing "pipes" or "throats" of Griqualand West, which may reasonably be considered as sections of such old craters as in the Stormberg, but at 2,000 feet lower level. And taken in connection with the other features of the Stormberg, they definitely fix the age of the dykes and intrusive rocks of dolerite, that form one of the most striking features in the geology of South Africa.

FAUNA; MAMMALS, BIRDS, REPTILES, FISHES, AND INSECTS.

THE Cape and South Africa have long enjoyed the reputation of being the richest fields of research for naturalists, and the best of hunting-grounds for those Nimrods who delight in the excitement of an encounter with the largest and noblest of *ferecæ naturæ*.

Dr. Andrew Smith's "Illustrations of Zoology," Captain Harris' "Wild Sports" and Galton's, Charles J. Andersson's, and Gordon Cumming's Adventures, have made the world pretty well acquainted with the variety and abundance of South African game; and moved many an enthusiastic sportsman to follow in their footsteps imbibing that fascinating taste for the "wild life of the desert" which so often becomes an enduring passion. But of the larger species of animals described by these writers there are now very few to be seen within the boundary of the Colony, although fifty years ago they were numerous enough, especially in the Eastern and Border Districts.

The poet Pringle who settled in 1820, with his Scottish relatives and friends along the spurs of the Great Winterberg, between Somerset and

Cradock, relates many lion-hunts and sporting occurrences of his time, and he has thus pictured the surroundings of the emigrants:—

"As we journeyed up the pathless glen,
Flanked by romantic hills on either hand,
The boschbok oft would bound away, and then
Beside the willows, backward gazing, stand.
And where old forests darken all the land
From rocky Katberg to the river's brink,
The Buffalo would start upon the strand,
Where 'mid palmetto flags, he stooped to drink,
And crashing through the brakes, to the deep jungle shrink.

Round this secluded region circling rise
A billowy waste of mountains, wild and wide;
Upon whose grassy slopes the pilgrim spies
The gnu and quagga, by the greenwood side,
Tossing their shaggy manes in tameless pride;
Or troops of elands near some sedgy fount;
Or koodo fawns, that from the thicket glide
To seek their dam upon the misty mount;
With harts, gazelles and roes, more than the eye may count.

Now-a-days, any one who desires to witness such a scene will have to travel far beyond the Great Winterberg. The countries north of the Vaal River, and reaching to the Zambesi River, and from Damaraland to the Cunene River on the West Coast, are the remote haunts where the king of beasts and the larger game are to be found in any numbers. They have gradually receded from the Colony and its border, before the advancing European population, leaving only a few varieties in some unmolested retreats, here and there, to indicate their former habitats.

The forests of the Knysna and Plettenberg's Bay still shelter some troops of elephants and buffaloes. The specimens of these animals now in the Cape Town Museum were obtained from there only a few years ago; and the elephant's head, which formed a prominent feature in the Duke of Edinburgh's collection of trophies at the Kensington Exhibition, came from the same locality.

His Royal Highness' account of his hunting expedition has been published in the "Cruise of the *Galatea*, 1867-8," and gives some idea of the sport still to be enjoyed in a district situate half way between Cape Town and Port Elizabeth. The Duke's party, after landing at the Knysna, proceeded through the forests for some miles to a spot known as "Keur Kop," where they had their first view of the elephants. The hunt then commenced and was continued with much zest and interest for three days, at the end of which one of the largest and oldest of the forest monsters, who unexpectedly presented himself, was forced to make his final obeisance within a few feet of the Duke.

His Royal Highness, in a letter to the Prince of Wales, thus described the scene:—

"Our friends the elephants commenced their circus performance again, coming partially into sight every now and then, and disappearing as they kept making a turn round the edge of the wood. Once more we shifted our place a little to the left, whence we had a more commanding view, and shortly saw the trunk of one pull down a big branch close to us. However, this time, there was a change in the performance, for he went round the opposite way, and we had cause to fear that the venerable gentleman was taking his leave through a

door at which there was no one placed to do him honour. This made us send a Hottentot round there, on horseback, to give wind. 'Elephans Africanus', however, was there as soon as he was, and, seeing him, gave chase to poor Totty at such a pace that the horse (and he was a good one) could only just keep ahead of him. The poor boy came galloping down towards us, though rather to our left, praying us to shoot, to save his life. And now old Elephanus came in sight, and we all formed to receive him, and got ready. I had standing next, on my right, George Rex, a farmer of the Knysna and headman of the hunt, and faithful Smith, who never left me, close behind me, and close behind Rex, stood Tom Rex, his brother, Archibald Duthie and George Atkinson, also farmers of the neighbourhood. These four had settled to keep their fire to the last, and never fired Next to George Rex, stood Sir Walter Currie, with (I can't call it a rifle) an enormous engine. No. 6 single-barrelled, and throwing a conical bullet about four to the pound; on my left General Bisset, Captain Gordon, and Captain Taylor, the Military Secretary. That was the party. As soon as the elephant saw us, he gave up his chase and charged us. There was so much excitement prevailing, that I thought I had better wait as long as possible. The sight of this enormous beast towering up above us and coming on at this tremendous pace, which one can scarcely understand so unwieldly an animal in appearance going, was magnificent,—his ears, which are three times as large as those of the Ceylon elephant, spread out square on each side. I could not help being reminded by it of a ship with studding-sails on both sides. When we had reached about twenty-five yards from us I fired at his head; the bullet struck, and he instantly seemed to stop himself as much as he could, and I gave him the shel just over the left eye, at which he swerved to the left and shook. Two or three others fired, and by this time he was nearly broadside on, when Sir Walter Currie's engine went off, with the bullet through his neck, and he rolled over, as I may say at our feet, for seven yards was the outside he was from us as he lay, and we cheered lustily. He, however, continued struggling for some time, and I put four

more bullets into his heart at about three yards. His height, as one measures a horse, was ten feet,—the height of his head must of course be added to this; girth, 16 feet 6 inches; length from tip of trunk to tip of tail, 23 feet 5 inches."

In 1868, the year following the Duke of Edinburgh's hunt, the wooded country from the Knysna to Humansdorp was explored by Messrs. Bain and Harrison, who found indications of a considerable number of the larger game—elephants and buffaloes—but they reported that these would soon disappear unless protected by stringent laws, as many hunting parties unauthorisedly enter the forest to destroy them.

The K'Addo Bush, along the base of the Zuurberg, within twenty or thirty miles of Port Elizabeth, also contain some of these animals, and the surveyors who were engaged in plotting out the line of railway from Port Elizabeth towards Graham's Town came upon a troop of twenty-five elephants and two calves; but the monsters seemingly did not relish the intrusion and quickly moved away to another part of the bush.

Until a very recent period hippopotami were in the Berg River, about eighty miles from Cape Town. They usually kept to the deep pools, but were sometimes seen resting in the reeds on the river's banks, and even grazing alongside the cattle in the vleys adjoining the river. One by one they died off until only a solitary bull remained, who in the rutting season became very savage and vicious. The lives of two persons, while bathing in the river, were sacrificed by the animal, and as there was no

security for its better behaviour, it was shot in 1869, by Mr. Melck, whose servant it had killed. Its dimensions were as follows:—Length from snout to tail, 11 feet 6 inches; girth round middle of body, 10 feet 10 inches; height at shoulder, from wethers to forefoot, 5 feet 2 inches, four leg 2 feet 2 inches; girth of hoof, 8 inches; hind leg, 2 feet 10 inches; breadth across the head, 2 feet 6 inches; round the head, 4 feet 8 inches; round the jaws, 5 feet 9 inches; breadth of mouth—upper lip, 1 foot 7 inches; lower, 1 foot 3 inches; tusks 9 inches long. It was supposed to be 28 years old,. and its weight was estimated at 3,000 lbs.

In the lower parts of the Orange River there are many hippopotami still remaining; they may also be met with in considerable numbers in the rivers of Kafirland, especially the Umtata and the Umzimvooboo, which literally means the "home of the sea-cow."

The lion has long been extinct within the Colony, and is not met with nearer than the Bechuanaland plains, or the northern parts of the Transvaal and the Matabele country. The leopard or Cape tiger is getting scarce, but is still to be found in some of the ravines and caverns of the mountains from Cape Town to the eastern Frontier. This animal is rarely inclined to cultivate the acquaintance of man,—goats, lambs and small game being his usual quarry—but, if wounded, is very savage and dangerous to encounter. Jackals and wild dogs, of the hyæna tribe are in some parts great depredators of the farmer's flocks; and baboons

and monkeys frequently make mischievous forays from the hills on the tempting vineyards and gardens of the agriculturists. A few troops of the zebra inhabit some of the mountain recesses, and not long ago a zebra, two mares and a foal, were caught alive at Attaqua's Kloof, near Oudtshoorn. Bonteboks, elands, koodos, and other rare species of antelopes are still preserved on private estates in the Caledon, and Outshoorn divisions; clumps of springboks are common in many of the Karoo plains, and even as far eastward as Somerset and Bedford; while north of Bloemfontein, in the Orange Free State, large herds of wildebeest, blesbok, gemsbok, haartebeest, and springboks are met with, either scouring the veld, or quietly feeding on the pastures, and among them the sportsman may revel in unbounded licence.

Sometimes the droughts in the Interior cause the game to forsake their ordinary haunts there, and migrate into the northern districts of the Colony. The springboks then appear in countless numbers, invading and destroying the herbage of the sheep-walks to a serious extent, and baffling any attempt to arrest their progress. They are often shot by hundreds and their carcases carried by wagon loads to the neighbouring towns for sale. Mr. Dunn who encountered them in Bushmanland in August 1872, says, "One may read about the vast numbers of springboks that cross this continent; but without seeing them no one can form a remote conception of their numbers. We have driven through them for six hours (35 miles); while from

reliable information, they extend for one hundred miles in length. Imagine flocks of from 2,000 to 6,000 of these animals scattered over the plain at intervals of two or three miles apart over the whole of this area, and you may form some notion of their abundance. This is the most graceful of all the gazelles. They are the perfection of form, litheness, and graceful action."

Of the numerous species of the Avi-fauna, the most complete catalogue will be found in E. L. Layard's "Birds of South Africa," and in C. J. Andersson's notes on those of Damaraland, and the adjacent countries of the West Coast, edited by J. H. Gurney, Esq. These books are not merely scientific descriptions, but are full of information which will interest the general reader as well as the ornithologist.

The "fleet-footed ostrich," which has been successfully domesticated all over the Colony for commercial purposes, is still found in its wild state in various parts of the Karoo country, and is pretty commonly distributed over the boundless wastes and plains of Namaqualand, the Kalihari, and Damaraland, whence large quantities of feathers are supplied.

The beautiful-plumaged flamingoes frequent the mouths of the rivers and bays of the West coast; and it is a fine sight to see a regiment of them collected together in the shallows or lagoons. They are often abundant at the lower parts of the Berg River near Malmesbury, and extend as far inland as Lake Ngami, where they are known to nest and breed. Pelicans,

penguins, albatross and gannet are also numerous along the coast. The latter are carefully preserved in their haunts on Ichaboe, Possession, and other Islands as they are considered the most valuable depositors of guano—a single gannet producing about four inches in depth annually, or 16 to 17 lbs. weight to the square foot.

The duck tribe is common all over the Colony. Amongst them is a very handsome goose known as the "berg-gans" or mountain-goose. It congregates at particular seasons of the year in vast numbers on contain well-known vleys, such as Vogel Vley, Verloren Vley, Bot River Mouth, &c. In these places it sheds the wing-feathers and becomes unable to fly. It is then much sought after, being very fat; but it dives with such rapidity that even in this condition it is very difficult to kill. It breeds in the rushes in these vleys; but in other places, such as at Keurboom River, in the Knysna Division, it breeds in holes of rocks, or hollow trees near the water, and is said to bring down its young on its back. The goslings dive as actively as their parents, which show much solicitude about them, keeping with them until they are fully grown; in fact, the little flocks in which they are generally found consist of an old pair and their brood from ten to fifteen in number. They are easily tamed and a great ornament to a poultry yard.

Birds of prey are plentiful, from the lordly eagle, which sometimes attacks the sheep-kraals and kills the lambs, to the common "aas-

vogels" or vultures, who hover about the roads, looking out for sick or maimed trek-oxen. Among this class is the stately crested "secretary bird" (*Serpentarius Reptilivorus*) who stalks about with great ease, grace and dignity as if conscious of the immunity he enjoys from the sportsman, on account of his usefulness in destroying snakes and other vermin. Mr. Andersson says it is most amusing to witness a combat between the snake and this bird. The reptile hisses and darts at the "secretary," which not only skilfully waves the attack, but by a rapid succession of violent blows from its formidable wings generally succeeds in a short time in prostrating its wily enemy, and finally puts an end to its death-struggle by transfixing the brain with its beak. Another peculiar bird is the "brom vogel" or ground hornbill, common on the frontier; it feeds on carrion and has a most offensive effluvia. The Kafirs, have always had a superstitious dread of it, but when their rivers become dry in seasons of drought, they kill a few and throw them into the bed of the stream, under the belief that "the waters will come down if only to vomit them up on the land again!"

There are several handsome cranes and herons,—the blue and Kafir cranes being especially elegant and graceful and easily tamed. The guinea fowl extends over many parts of the Eastern Districts, and about the Orange and Vaal Rivers, where the bush affords it shelter. A large bustard, commonly known as the "Paauw," is also found in these localities and much prized as the best of all game birds for the

table. Another variety, the Knoorhaan (or scolding cock), is very widely distributed, frequenting the open country from one end of the Colony to the other.

Besides these, the hills and valleys are stocked with pheasants and partridges; quails are regular annual visitors, while bush-doves, spreuws, and the smaller birds abound everywhere; so that there is never any lack of game for the sporstman—who, if travelling through the country, is at liberty to shoot at all seasons for his actual consumption, provided he be on the northern side of Hottentot's Kloof or Berg River.

Of the small feathery tribe who frequent the bush, there are endless varieties, many of very graceful form and lovely plumage. Among the most striking, are the sugar birds, the finks or weaver birds, the cuckoos, the honey-guide, the king fishers, and the louri. The social amadavats, the "roodebec" of colonists, congregate in flocks, are easily captured, and from their sprightliness add much to the appearance of an aviary. The "pinc pinc" and the "witte-oogjies" are also very lively and cunning bush-creepers, who roam about in large families, and are regular visitors during the fruit season. The "Jan Frederic" is another favourite; it is the colonial Robin, and is common in all gardens, even in the midst of Cape Town, flitting along the gravel paths, scraping in the flower beds, perching on the leafless summit of some deciduous tree or the ridge of the housetop, and pouring out a short, robin-like song, which,

when heard in the darkening twilight, reminds the listener of the familiar note of the "household bird with the red stomacher."

Cape birds have been maligned by some travellers, who have represented them as being all without song; but Mr. Layard gives the names of "Jan Frederic" and other warblers; for instance the schaapwachter or shepherd bird (*Saxicola Pileata*) which he says is one of the most favoured and favourite birds of the Colony, over the whole of which it extends. "He is protected and petted on account of his own natural sweet notes, and for his great powers of imitation. Perched on a white-ant's nest he pours out a flood of song, chanting long into the darkening twilight, when other songsters are gone to rest, and the morning light scarcely suffices to enable you to see the musician, ere he again commences his mellow notes or imitations." The Cape canary (*Fringilla Canicollis*), likewise common throughout the Colony, also sings sweetly, and breeds in captivity with the tame canary. Even the ordinary household swallow (*Hirundo Capensis*) has a cheerful note, besides being useful in other ways. "It breeds freely about the houses and in the country, often selecting the usual sitting-room of the family. In the city this familiarity is not permitted on account of the dirt made by the birds; but the Boer fixes up a board under the nest, to prevent the worst fouling, and considers that the rest is atoned for by the destruction of the myriads of flies, of which his little favourites rid him during the season of their stay. And only those who

have sojourned in a Boer's house can estimate the plague of flies that infest it; they swarm on "bed and board," they pollute the food and drink; chairs, tables, walls, everything is blackened by them. No wonder, then, that the swallow is a welcome guest, and that to rob his nest is to get into the bad books of every member of the family. As you sit at meals, the graceful bird hawks over the table, and snatches the flies from the walls and ceiling; nor is this the only service he renders, for, sitting on the top of the window or door (always left open for his accommodation) he pours out a short but lively song, which enlivens the dreary solitude and silence of the lone homestead." Mr. Andersson again writes enthusiastically of the *Cinnyris talatalu*, one of the most beautiful of the sunbirds, and says:—"It is exceedingly lively in its habits, and at the approach of the pairing-season, it becomes inspired with the most exquisite and lovely melodies, in fact its voice is then enchanting beyond description."

Turning to another division of the animal kingdom, we find the Reptilia represented in various forms. The crocodile, which occupies some of the Natal and Transvaal rivers, is however altogether unknown in the Cape Colony. There are several species of tortoise. In British Kaffraria and Lower Albany, iguanas are met with on the banks of the streams, and in the stony tracts near the Orange River a variety is known as the berg or mountain iguana (*Varanus albogularis*). Lizards are numerous,

there being scarcely a stony knoll, precipice or exposed rock which does not afford a habitat for one or more of them. Chameleons are also common. Many species of snakes are to be found, some being deadly poisonous, while others are quite harmless. The "puff-adder," the "berg-adder," the "ringhals," and other different varieties of the "cobra," the "night-adder," the "boem-slang," or tree-snake, the "spoeg-slang" or spitting-snake, the "schaapsticker," and other grass snakes, may be classed among the former; while the python, and black "mole" and "mouse-eaters" are among the latter. A colonist who has had some acquaintance with these reptiles writing in the *Cape Monthly Magazine* lately, says:—"There is only one infallible method of determining whether a snake is venomous or not without approaching or examining it, and that is by noticing its behaviour. A snake's fang or poison tooth, which is the weapon of defence in the poisonous reptile, is exactly the shape of the claw of a cat, having the form of an arc, sheathed in the gums of the snake's mouth. Now the muscles at the back of the neck and partly down the back act on these fangs when they are required to be brought into action, and therefore to be able to strike or bring its fangs into play, the poisonous snake must raise itself, throw its neck backwards, and its head somewhat in the shape of a cock of a gun. Those which are harmless having no need of this proceedings as they have no fangs, but teeth, dart straight forward in a horizontal position; and this rule is invariable. This forms the easiest method of

finding out the nature of the snake you are about to encounter or contend with, as, though venomous snakes seldom run away, harmless ones sometimes show fight when intruded upon." Most of them, it is true, are glad to move out of the way, and if not, a well aimed blow with a stick or other weapon may put an end to them; but in case of an accidental wound from any of them, it is as well to know the remedies to be used to prevent serious consequences, if not to save life.

Cape Colonists have used some with acknowledged success. We do not allude to the "native" remedies, such as "a black fowl killed and divided, and each side alternately applied to the wound;" nor copious draughts of "new milk;" the decoction of the "cotton-plant," a powerful emetic; nor the greasy linen night-caps of the "snake doctor" dosed with snake poison, although the acknowledged virtues of one or other of them are still believed in by Bushmen and Hottentots! One specific is ammonia, administered by dissolving twelve grains of the carbonate in water and giving it to the patient every ten or fifteen minutes, at the same time rubbing the ammonia on the wound. Ipecacuanha is also recommended as a very effective remedy; and "Croft's Tincture" is widely known as a colonial antidote. In all cases of snake bite, however, the application of ligatures, extraction of the poison by suction or cauterization, and the administration of strong stimulants together with violent exercise to quicken the circulation of the blood, are generally acknowledged to be beneficial, if not effectual.

Fish are plentiful along the coasts of the Colony, and many of the varieties are similar, and most of them quite equal to, those of Europe. The late Dr. Pappe published a valuable synopsis of the edible fishes of the Cape, and to him we are indebted for the information we possess on the subject. He says that no less than a dozen of the natives of the Mediterranean are likewise inhabitants of the waters washing our shores. It is remarkable, however, that many of the species found on the West-Coast are altogether absent from the bays eastward of Cape L'Agulhas; and even in Table Bay and False Bay a similar diversity occurs, several kinds being rare or wanting in the one, although common in the other. Among the choicest table favourites are some varieties of the *Sparidæ*, locally known as the Roman, Hangberger, red and white Stumpnose, and the bastard silver-fish or Seventy-four; of the *Squamipennes*, the highly esteemed galleon-fish; of the *Gadidæ* the stock-fish, which is said to have made its first appearance at the Cape shortly after the earthquake of 1809; and of the *Blenniidæ*, the delicate klip-fish, which is easily caught in large numbers at certain seasons of the year. There are two or three of the *Scomberidæ*, one of which is the elf (*Temnodon Saltator*) is considered a dainty; another, the mackerel (*Scomber Grex*) is as abundant here as at New York; and the snoek (*Thyrsites Atun*) appears in large shoals during the winter months, and forms a considerable article of consumption as well as of export.

The last named is a most voracious animal, affording keen and exciting sport to the captors. The usual mode of fishing for them is from a boat under sail by lines with large barbless hooks attached, adorned with strips of shark skin and red tape; and so ravenous are they that sometimes they jump out of the water to seize this bait. They are also strong and ferocious, and, after being hauled-in, they have to be dispatched by a blow on the head with a stick or knobkerrie. Of the *Sciænidæ*, there are the geelbeck, and kabeljauw, the former a very handsome fish and often called the Cape salmon; both are very common and largely dried and salted like cod for exportation. There are also gurnards, mullet, shad, soles, and rays; and a variety of the *Xiphiuridæ*, the king klipfish, which justly deserves its title as being one of the most desirable of the finny tribe. Along the eastern coast the Dageraad and Albacore are frequently caught. In the whole list of Cape fish there is only one particularly objectionable, the toad-fish (*Tetraodon Honkenyi Bloch*) found in Simon's Bay, and along the eastern shores. As soon as it is taken out of the water, it becomes inflated like a ball, and with its sparkling eyes looks very unsightly and ferocious; when dispatched by a blow from a stick it gives an explosive report and has a nauseous odour. The highly poisonous nature of this small fish has long been known, yet several persons have fallen a sacrifice from using it as food.

Of the edible crustaceans, the principal is the

crawfish or Cape lobster (*Palinurus Lalandii Lam.*) common to Table Bay. It is caught in great numbers all the year round, and the flesh of the half-grown individuals is tender and delicate and largely consumed. Amongst the mollusca, says Dr. Pappe, none have such a deserved reputation as *Haliotis Midæ Lin* (Klipkous) and a species of *Stomatia* (Paarlmoer). In Cape Town, these oceanic productions, which require a good deal of preparation, seasoning and ingredients before they reach the dinner-table, are pronounced to be the most exquisite—the very pitch of delicacy. Oysters are found at Mossel Bay, Knysna, Zwaartkops River mouth, and other places to the eastward, and are little inferior to those of Europe. Some mussels are collected at times and sold as articles of food, viz.: the *Mytilus edulis Lin*, the well known edible mussel of Europe,—and *Donax denticulata Lin*, called witte mossels (white mussels) which latter is inocuous at some seasons, but venomous at others; and by some inhabitants several large species of *Patella* (Paardevoetjes, Limpets), and a kind of *Nerita* (Aardkruipers) are also made use of as a palatable and nutritious dish.

Fresh-water fish are not at all numerous. The colonial rivers and lakes, however, contain varieties of *Mugillidæ*, especially the leaping mullet or springer, which makes a good table fish. Eels are also found in most of them, and in the Orange, Vaal and Modder Rivers, a very large Silurus, the *Clarius Clapensis*, is abundant, ut, from its ugliness, it is less prized

than it deserves. Its large flattened head, frog-like eyes, and capacious mouth with long tapering barbels stretching from it, convey a decidedly repulsive feeling; yet it is said to be rich and delicious, like the eel, whose habits it greatly resembles. It is fond of burrowing in the mud whence it seizes on its unsuspecting prey; but we have seen it disporting in the water and ravenously feeding on swarms of locusts forcing their way across the rivers. The movements of some of these large fish have rolling on the surface of the water probably given rise to the oft-told story of the Great Water Snake of the Orange River.

Insect life is not strikingly abundant, although there are a great number of species. Mr. Trimen, Curator of the Museum, has made this department his study, and his published work on the Diurnal Lepidoptera embraces most of the varieties to be found from the Cape to Natal. The South African butterflies muster strong in the summer season, and many of them are very large and beautifully adorned. Bees are numerous, especially in the bush and forests, yielding considerable supplies of honey and wax, and the Legislature lately provided for the protection of these against vagrant natives, by declaring them the property of the occupier of the land and imposing penalties for destroying them. Ants are everywhere active and energetic, one kind being the red ant, a pest both to the gardener and the housekeeper—and another the white ant whose larvæ yields a dainty dish, somewhat resembling

rice, which Bushmen and other native tribes in the Interior are fond of. Beetles are always at work along the roadside coursing after their prey. Fire-flies spangle, in the darkness of night. Crickets keep the air alive with their shrill discordant pipe. Spiders and centipedes have their homes in outbuildings and neglected places, and make their appearance in the unceiled rooms of thatched houses at inconvenient and unseasonable times. Scorpions bury themselves in holes, but often turn up in angry moods, leaving venomously-irritating remniscences. There are also several *ixodes*, known locally as "ticks," whose attentions are unpleasant both to man and beast, especially along the coast districts. In the interior, there is a member of this family, known as the "sampang" or "tampang," an ugly and venomous thing which is said to swarm particularly about camelthorn trees. Mr. Boyle encountered it during his visit "To the Cape for Diamonds," and describes it as "the very king and tyrant of all the pests by night and day; he is in shape flat about the size of a threepenny piece and under; he has many legs, but no head in particular doth he bear, it is all merged and lost in a great bundle of swords; his monstrous snout he inserts into your person and sucks and kicks and prods and pumps until his whole carcase is distended with your life-blood." The heathen Namaquas are said to have punished offenders against their code of morality by binding the sinners to a tree where these insects abounded, leaving them to die there in all the excruciating torment which their bite produces.

Of the herbivorous order of insects there are several. One group, the Mantidæ, comprises the *Prieu Dieu* or "Hottentot God," so named from its habit of holding up its two forelegs as in the act of devotion. Mr. Trimen says it is slow and sedentary as a rule; but much resembles the chameleon in its tactics, resting motionless but vigilant on branches, leaves or flowers till some prey is within reach; and as the chameleon is rendered less conspicuous by the general adaptation of its colouring to the object on which it may for the time be resting, so this mantis most commonly mimics in form and colour the vegetation which it frequents.

Another, which periodically appears in such numbers as to prove a scourge in the country, is the Locust (*Pachytylus migratorus*). They are mostly met with in the northern and eastern districts, and have seldom been seen south or west of the Beaufort Karoo. The larvæ or incomplete insects, known as the *voet gangers* (infantry) are the most persistent and destructive. The unoccupied plains on either side of the Orange River seem to be their principal hatching-beds, and they come forth in countless myriads, spreading over a surface of hundreds of miles, devouring everything that grows even down to the roots, until the ground where they have passed over seems as clean as if it had been swept by a broom. We have travelled through them for days together, and witnessed continuous streams of them hopping through the border towns, crossing broad rivers, demolishing corn fields, gardens and vineyards, and every blade of grass

they could get at. Their approach is regarded by the farmers as a serious plague, generally involving the ruin of both their crops and pasture. Then every man, woman and child about the homestead turns out with improvised flags of many-coloured cloths to meet the advancing army, and by incessant waving of these in front of them the course of the foremost battallions is sometimes diverted from the cultivated lands, and the labour of the husbandman preserved. For many weeks this method of warding off their inroads must be continued, as swarm follows swarm in succession, and the slightest neglect may be disastrous, for once the insects get possession, all is lost—they roll and tumble over each other, climbing the fences and mounting the corn-stalks, and, commencing with the ears, quickly destroy every grain and stem. From sunset to sunrise they invariably rest, collecting on the bush or shrubs in swarms like bees, and numbers of them are then destroyed, either by fire or by turning troops of sheep among them, who trample and kill them ; but so numerous are they that little benefit is derived from this. After a time they emerge as half-fledged flying locusts, with bright lace-like wings, sometimes hovering in the air like snow flakes, and at other times forming into such large masses as to darken the sky at mid-day. Wherever they settle down all vegetation is quickly denuded ; but to prevent this, farmers kindle fires in all directions, the heat and smoke of which prevents the insects from alighting. Occasionally they are thus driven away from the coast districts into the sea,—the most

effectual way of getting rid of them, as otherwise they settle on the ground and deposit their eggs, perpetuating their numbers in the following rainy season.

Nature has provided a check to the ravages of the locusts in the little Pratincole *Glanola Nordmanin* or locust-birds. Simultaneous with the locusts, these birds appear in swarms, attacking them and feasting on them continually. They approach in thick masses, assuming in their flight the most fantastic shapes and forms; now rising like a spiral column of dust carried aloft by the wind, then spreading out like an extended cloud, or slanting off in a long wavy line. Their mode of operation when attacking the locusts is most interesting to observe. One who has closely watched them, says :—"They intercept a portion of the swarm, and form themselves into a ring of considerable height regularly widened towards the top so as to present the appearance of a revolving balloon or huge spinning top. They thus fly one over the other, and hawking at the locusts, gradually contract their circle and speedily demolish the locusts within its limits. When they have consumed a portion of the swarm, they follow up the main body and commence another attack, and so on, until night sets in and the birds happen to lose the swarm, or the locusts are all devoured. Their digestion, like that of all insectivorous birds, is very rapid, and their beak is exactly of such a shape and such dimensions that when they seize the locust the snap cuts off the four wings, and a passer-by sees a continual shower of locusts's wings falling on the ground."

Another locust bird is the large white stork (*Ciconia Alba*), which is also a migratory visitant to the Colony, following the flights of locusts, on which it feeds.

POLITICAL AND CIVIL INSTITUTIONS.

During the occupation of the Cape of Good Hope as a Dependency of the Dutch East India Company from 1652 to 1795, all executive, legislative, and judicial authority was exercised by a Governor and Council, who were appointed by the Company and responsible for their proceedings to the directors in Holland. A similar form of administration prevailed from 1803 to 1806, during the time the Colony was transferred to the Batavian Republic—the Governor and Council, however, being no longer dependant upon a commercial body, but only subject to the supreme power of the State.

Under the British Government from 1795 to 1803, and afterwards from 1806, the Governors alone exercised all the power and authority, until, in 1825, an Executive Council was appointed to assist them. Ten years afterwards, in 1835, a Legislative Council, whose proceedings were open to the public, was established by Royal Instructions. The Council consisted of not more than twelve persons, exclusive of the Governor, who was president; and of these six were persons holding office under the Crown,

and the other six nominated by the Governor and confirmed by the Crown.

By Letters Patent issued by Her Majesty Queen Victoria in 1850, this Legislative Council was authorised to enact ordinances for the establishment of complete representative Government; and by an Order-in-Council dated 11th March 1853, what is termed the "Constitution Ordinance," providing for the creation of a Colonial Parliament, consisting of a House of Assembly and Legislative Council, came into force.

The Governor was empowered to have an Executive Council to advise and assist him, composed of the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Auditor-General, the Treasurer-General, and the Collector of Customs—all of whom, with the exception of the last-named, were entitled to sit and take part in the debates and proceedings of Parliament. These officers, however, had no right to vote as members of the Legislature; and, although charged with the conduct of public affairs, were in no way required to enjoy the confidence and support of a majority of the electors or their representatives. Hence there occasionally arose an antagonism in action and policy between the Government of the day and the Parliament.

A change to the British system of Responsible or Party Government was proposed, and continued to be agitated for, at different periods afterwards; but it was not adopted until 1872. In that year an Act was passed by the Legislature, and received the Royal Assent, which

provides that the members of the Executive Council may hold seats and vote in either House of Parliament. Under this authority, His Excellency the Governor now selects his advisers or "Cabinet Ministers" from among those persons possessing the confidence of the majority of the people's representatives, and who as such are responsible to the Legislature for the acts of the Government. These Ministers, once installed, hold office until they find that they are unable to secure in the Legislature the requisite support of their policy,—or the Governor deems it his duty to act on important questions in opposition to their policy and advice,—when they give place to others, in analogy with the usage prevailing in the United Kingdom.

While the gifts of Representative and Responsible Government have thus been conceded to the Colony, the Crown has still the prerogative of appointing its own Governors and of exercising a veto on all legislation; it also remains the supreme fountain of justice, to which ultimate appeals from the Judicatures of the Colony are preferred; and the Imperial Parliament holds its indisputable omnipotence over this, as over every part of the whole Empire. The Crown, however, exercises no control over any public officer, except the Governor. The direction of internal affairs, the management of departments, and the appointment to all public offices, rest with the Ministers forming the Executive Council.

The Ministry or Cabinet, who, together with the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, form the Executive Council, is composed of:

1. A Colonial Secretary, whose office supervises the whole Civil Service.

2. An Attorney-General who is the law adviser and public prosecutor.

3. A Treasurer-General, who is the receiver-general and finance officer, and principal collector and controller of customs.

4. A Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works.

5. A Secretary for Native Affairs, who is charged with the management of all the relations with the aboriginal tribes.

Nearly all the above officers have permanent Under-Secretaries, or assistants, as heads of their several Departments.

The Legislature consists of two branches. The Lower House, or House of Assembly, numbers at present sixty-eight members,* elected for five years unless Parliament is sooner dissolved. It nominates its own Speaker and officers, and members residing beyond a certain distance from the seat of Government are paid an allowance of £1 per day, in addition to travelling expenses, for attendance during any session for a term of fifty days. With the exception of paid-officers under Government (other than the Executive Council), any qualified voter may be elected as a member of the House of Assembly. The qualification required of voters is, being a born

* By the Act of 1877, for the annexation of the Province of Griqualand West to the Cape Colony, provision is made for the return of four members to the House of Assembly, thus increasing the total number of members of the House to seventy-two.

or naturalized British subject resident in the Colony for twelve months before registration, and an occupier of property of the value of £25, or in receipt of salary or wages of not less than £50 per annum, or not less than £25 with board and lodging. This very liberal franchise—approaching to universal suffrage—gives nearly every colonist the privilege of taking part either as elector or elected in the conduct of public affairs and in the promotion of the welfare of the community.

The Upper House, or Legislative Council, consists of twenty-one members, who are elected by the same voters as the House of Assembly, but a considerable property qualification is required for membership—namely, the possession of immoveable property of £2,000 or moveable property worth £4,000. For the election of Members of the Council, the Colony was formerly divided into two constituencies or provinces (West and East); but, by an Act passed in 1874, it has been divided into seven electoral circles or provinces, each of which returns three members. The Chief Justice is *ex officio* President of the Council, and the members are designated "Honourable."

The Parliament must meet once in every year. Its sessions are usually held during the months of April, May or June, in Cape Town. The rules of debate and procedure observed by its members are substantially the same as those adopted by the British Parliament, in accordance with "May's Parliamentary Practice."

The highest Court of Judicature in the Colony

is the "Supreme Court," which has its sittings in Cape Town, and is composed of a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges. It has cognizance of all pleas, and jurisdiction in all causes, civil, criminal, and mixed, arising in the Colony, over all persons resident and being within the Colony. It has moreover full powers to review, correct, or set aside the proceedings of all inferior courts of justice within the Colony.

Besides this Court, there is a Court of concurrent jurisdiction for the Eastern Districts of the Colony, called the "Court of the Eastern Districts," which has its sittings at Graham's Town, and is composed of two judges, who are also Puisne Judges of the Supreme Court. An appeal is allowed from the Eastern Districts Court to the Supreme Court. If the two judges of the Eastern Districts Court differ in opinion upon any case, the case is removed for decision into the Supreme Court. One of the judges of the Eastern Districts Court is sufficient and competent to exercise the functions of that Court.

From the judgment of the Supreme Court an appeal lies to the Queen in Her Privy Council, in case such judgment is given for, or involves, any claim to the value of five hundred pounds sterling, or directly or indirectly affects civil rights,—leave to appeal having been first obtained from the Supreme Court.

Circuit Courts are held twice in every year, at such times and places as the Governor directs. Such courts have each in their respective districts the same powers which the Supreme Court has throughout the Colony. In cases where the sum or matter at issue in a circuit court amounts to

more than one hundred pounds sterling, an appeal lies to the Supreme Court.

The Attorney-General has the right and duty to prosecute all crimes in all courts in the Colony, in person or by deputy; and the right of prosecution is entirely in his own control. But no person can be put on trial on any indictment at any criminal session unless the Bill of such indictment shall have been presented to a Grand Jury of not more than seventeen and not less than nine men, and shall have been returned by them a true Bill. No Grand Jury is requisite at trials on circuit.

There is a Vice-Admiralty Court, the Chief Justice being judge, which sits at Cape Town for the trial of offences committed on the high seas and for the adjudication of maritime disputes.

Besides these higher courts, there are courts of Resident Magistrates held in each town or division of the Colony, and also Periodical Courts held in outlying villages where the magistrates have limited jurisdiction.

Justices of the Peace are appointed by the Governor; and within their jurisdiction they keep the public peace, summon offenders, and witnesses, arrest criminals, and take examinations; they likewise take recognizances of men to be on their good behaviour.

Field-cornets are also appointed by the Governor; and are bound to apprehend without warrant and to commit to prison any person who in their presence commits, or whom they have reasonable grounds to suspect of having com-

mitted any crime. They conform to the special instructions of the Resident Magistrate, within whose jurisdiction their ward is situated. In cases of wreck, when their wards adjoin the sea they are bound to repair to the spot where the wreck occurs, and to use every endeavour to save life and property. The Chief Constables and other members of the constabulary of a district have the same power as field-cornets to arrest persons for any crime or offence, and they are required, as much as in them lies, to suppress all tumults and other breaches of the peace.

The Roman-Dutch Law—which consists of the Civil or Roman Laws, as modified by the laws passed by the Legislature of Holland and by the customs of that country—forms the great bulk of the Law of this Colony, and there is also a large body of Statute Law scattered throughout the British Imperial Statute Book, which has force within it. The Roman-Dutch Law, as it prevails here, has moreover been further modified by Placaats and Proclamations up to the year 1824; after that by Ordinances of the Council of Parliament and Legislative Council; and lastly by Acts of the Colonial Parliament.

The Government is represented in each division or district by a Civil Commissioner or a Magistrate; in some cases the two offices being combined in one person. The civil commissioners are charged with the collection of all revenues as well as the administration of justice and other matters. In colonial terms, a "division" means the territory over which the authority of a civil commissioner extends; a

"district," the territory in which a resident magistrate has jurisdiction.

In all the divisions there are local bodies termed Divisional Councils, elected by the ratepayers. To them is entrusted the repair and maintenance of roads and bridges, and the settlement of questions relating to land boundaries; and they have also to inspect and report upon Crown waste lands proposed to be offered for sale. In most of the towns there are Municipal Councils, elected by the householders, for the management of local affairs. These Divisional Councils and Municipalities are empowered to raise revenues for their respective purposes, by the levy of rates upon landed properties, by tolls, and by licences. The funds administered by the Divisional Councils amount to £130,000 per annum; and by Municipalities near to £84,000. The value of the fixed property throughout the Colony, for rateable purposes, is £22,000,000.

Under the Irrigation Act of 1877, provision is made for the constitution of Irrigation Boards in districts, wherever three or more owners of land agree to act in combination for carrying out irrigation works, or the storage of water. The members of the board are chosen from and elected by the landowners. They have borrowing and rating powers, and the Government is authorised to assist them with loans of money on the credit of the rates assessed; but the character of the works to be carried out is in every case to be decided by a professional engineer appointed by the Government. Provision is also made for aiding individual proprietors

and farmers desirous of storing water or irrigating their lands ; they may receive assistance from Government in the shape of an advance, on undertaking to pay a rent-charge for the same at the rate of 8 per cent. for a term extending over 24 years. Scarcely sufficient time has yet elapsed since the passing of the Act to allow of these boards coming into practical operation ; but important results are looked for from them, in the improvement of estates, and the development of the resources of the country.

Among other institutions there is one connected with land, which was established at a very early date by the Dutch East India Company, and is deserving of particular notice. It is the Government Department known as the "Deeds Registry Office;" which secures in a very simple yet perfect manner the registration of all titles to landed property and mortgages upon the same. The registry extends back to 1685, shortly after the Cape was first occupied by Europeans ; and at any moment the purchaser of an estate may refer to and ascertain all the bygone circumstances, servitudes, encumbrances, and other matters connected with any old property, without the troublesome complexity or enormous expense which attends the same proceeding in England.

Titles to land are in the first instance issued by Government, representing the Crown, and registry of such issue is preserved in the Surveyor-General's Office. All subsequent conveyance, transfer or exchange of any property is required to be recorded at the "Deeds Office," where regular entry is made of the description

of the property, its extent, the name of the seller, the purchaser, and the amount for which it is sold. A duty of 4 per cent. on the purchase amount is paid to the colonial revenue on the sale of any property, and also a succession-duty on properties bequeathed; and certificates of these having been paid are required to be produced before transfer is given.

The "Deeds Office" likewise provides for the registration of hypothecations and mortgages. To have any legal right or title, or to be effectual against creditors, all such bonds are entered in what is termed the "debt registry," which is indexed, and daily open to public inspection on payment of a small fee. No transfer of land can be obtained until after a settlement of these bonds, either by the mortgagee consenting to continue his loan on the securities of the new purchaser, or by repayment.

Under this system the most perfect security is given to the capitalist, and the conveyance of landed property is made certain, simple, and economical. The Registrar and his assistants, before passing any deeds, satisfy themselves that the transferer has a clear title to the property, and not merely a life interest in it; that there are no servitudes or prohibitory conditions in the way of transfer; that there are no mortgages upon it in the "debt registry;" that the diagrams are correct; and that the proper transfer or succession duties have been paid. Thus, without a possibility of fraud, or of the existence of mortgages concealed, the largest, best-conditioned, or most involved estate may be sold and transferred

from one owner to another on a couple of sheets or less of paper; and the facilities are so great that the time occupied in passing any deeds is not more than about seven days.

The "Master's Office" is another very important department, charged with the performance of duties corresponding to those of a Master of Chancery and a Commissioner of Insolvent Estates combined. It rests with the Master to register wills, to control the proceedings of trustees or executors in the administration of estates and properties of minors, lunatics, and absent persons. He also regulates all proceedings in bankruptcy, and assists the Supreme Court in matters which it refers to him for report or opinion. The duties connected with the administration of minors' and absent persons' estates, are of a specially responsible character.

The inheritance of minors who have no tutors appointed by their parents, and the monies in the hands of tutors-dative and curators-dative, after payment of the debts due by the estate and the amount required for the immediate maintenance of the person under their guardianship, must be paid into the hands of the Master,—by him put out to interest,—and the interest, when required, paid for their maintenance and education,—at one per cent. less than the usual rate of interest. The monies thus paid into his office for account of minors, lunatics, and unknown and foreign heirs having no legal representatives in the Colony, forms what is denominated the "Guardians' Fund." The capital of this Fund amounts at present to over half a million sterling, and is

invested partly in mortgage bonds under security of landed property, and partly in Government stock and debentures. The interest at present allowed on minors' inheritances is at the rate of four per cent. This ceases on their attaining their majority. Foreign heirs not having legal representatives in the Colony, are allowed at one half of the legal rate current in the Colony, and for a period not exceeding five years. Their names and residences, where known, and the amounts due to them, are published twice a year, namely, in July and in October, in the *Government Gazette*, also in the *London Gazette* and other papers.

Of Benevolent Institutions, the Government maintains a General Infirmary and Lunatic Asylum on Robben Island, at the entrance of Table Bay, and a Lunatic Asylum at Graham's Town. There are also commodious public hospitals at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Graham's Town, King Williams's Town, and Queen's Town. There is a fine roomy Sailor's Home, for the accommodation of seamen connected with Table Bay. Orphanages and benevolent societies, under the care of philanthropic ladies, are voluntarily supported. Masonic, Odd-Fellows' and Good Templars' lodges are numerous throughout the Colony. And to foster habits of prudence and forethought, without which neither communities nor individuals can be permanently prosperous, there is a Metropolitan Savings Bank, with a total invested funds of £222,322, and Government Savings Banks are opened in all the chief country towns.

The Defence of the Colony is provided for by a semi-military force, the Frontier Armed and Mounted Police—numbering 1,200 officers and men, including a battery of artillery of 7-pounder light mountain guns. There are also upwards of 36 volunteer corps, throughout the several divisions. The military expenditure of the Colony for 1876 amounted to £105,000, besides the contribution of £10,000 as a colonial allowance for the Imperial troops.* The Imperial expenditure for the maintenance of the military establishments in the Colony during the same period was £127,000 ; and for the navy £85,150.

The religious welfare of the people is well provided for ; but there is no State Church. In 1805, when the Cape was under the Batavian Republic, one of the regulations issued by Commissioner-General De Mist was, that all churches or religious communities which, for the promotion of virtue and good morals, revere a Superior Being, were to enjoy equal protection from the laws of the Colony. And this principle of toleration is continued. But contributions towards the support of the clergy of several denominations were granted by the Government at various times, from the period of the Colony becoming a British possession. In 1853, when Parliamentary Government was about to be introduced, these grants amounted to £16,060 per annum ; and by a schedule to the Constitution Ordinance that sum was set aside

* In 1877 the amount voted by Parliament for Defence was increased to £146,000.

to be annually appropriated for the service of "religious worship." The unequal distribution of this amount among the different churches, and the growing claims of new congregations excluded from a share in it,—as well as the persistent agitation of the advocates of the "Voluntary Principle,"—finally induced the Legislature in 1875 to pass an Act providing for its gradual withdrawal and abolition. This measure, now on the statute-book, secures the continuance of existing stipends during the life-time of present incumbents, and to the successors of such of them as may die or resign before the expiration of five years from the taking effect of the Act, up to the expiration of the said five years,—giving ample opportunity to the various churches dependent upon State-aid to make arrangements for providing a sustentation-fund for the support of their clergy and other purposes.

The system of Public Education, established in the Colony as early as 1835, was devised by Governor Sir George Napier, with the advice and assistance of Sir John Herschel, who was then a visitor at the Cape. First-class or principal schools were opened at the chief towns of the several divisions; and second-class or elementary schools at minor stations and such localities among the agricultural inhabitants of the country as could furnish a sufficient number of pupils to justify the expense. The objects aimed at (to quote the language of the distinguished philosopher above named) were:—"To form in the individual advantageous personal habits; to store the mind with useful knowledge, and practical maxims available for the demands

of life; to enlarge the powers and capacities of the mind, and to elevate his propensities by familiarising him with trains of connected and serious thought, and with high examples of moral and intellectual conduct; to form good citizens and men by instructing them in the relations of social and civil life; and to fit them for a higher state of existence by teaching them those things which connect them with their Maker and Redeemer." In order to give effect to this plan a body of teachers, selected chiefly from the Scotch Universities, were brought out at the public expense and put in charge of the schools at the principal stations, under Dr. Innes, as Superintendent-General; and the labours of these gentlemen proved highly beneficial to the Colony.

After the introduction of Representative Government, the Legislature, in 1860, appointed a commission to take evidence and report upon the whole question of Education, and the result was the gradual abandonment of the established Government schools, and the adoption of a system of State "grants-in-aid," to encourage voluntary efforts on the part of the inhabitants of each locality.

Dr. Dale, who succeeded the late Dr. Innes as Superintendent-General, was the framer of the present Education Act (No. 13 of 1865)—a liberal and comprehensive system, which has given a very marked and considerable impetus to popular education in the country.

The public schools under this Act are strictly undenominational, both in management and teaching. They are conducted by local managers,

selected by those of the inhabitants who are willing to share in the guarantee required by Government for the maintenance of the school and the payment of the teachers' salaries. On the observance of the conditions of aid, a grant not exceeding £200 per annum is given to schools of the first-class in the chief town of the division. In secondary towns or villages the grant varies from £50 to £75. In agricultural districts, where children can be assembled at a school station amongst a cluster of farms, a sum of £30 per annum is allowed. Boarding schools in country districts, not less than six miles distant from any town or village school, likewise receive allowances according to the number of teachers. All these schools are frequented chiefly by children of European descent, and a moderate fee is levied for the advantages offered. Mission schools in connection with churches and missionary societies are also aided, in order to provide for the education of such of the population as are unable to form schools for themselves. In these mission schools, though thus denominational in management, no scholars are compelled to attend for religious instruction without the consent of their parents or guardians. The public money is therefore only appropriated to the promotion of secular instruction; religious instruction is left in the hands of the local managers, and the Superintendent-General of Education takes no further note of it than to see that the religious convictions of all are duly respected.

Besides these schools, institutions for the education and industrial training of the native

youths of the Kafir and other tribes are liberally provided for. The main stations in the Colony are, the Free Church Seminary at Lovedale, Alice; the Wesleyan Fingo Institution Heald Town, Fort Beaufort; and the English Church Kafir Institutions at Zonnebloem near Cape Town, and at Graham's Town. Beyond the Border, in the Transkei, and in Basutoland, elementary instruction is provided at the villages or kraals, wherever duly qualified native teachers can be obtained.

Towards the promotion of higher education there are several colleges and high-schools, which receive grants for the maintenance of professorships and lectureships; and to some of these institutions valuable scholarships and bursaries are attached. But the cope-stone of the educational establishment is, the Cape of Good Hope University, incorporated by Act of the Colonial Legislature in 1873. The degrees conferred by it are now, by Royal Charter issued in 1877, entitled to the same rank, precedence and consideration as if granted by any University in the United Kingdom.*

Public Libraries, Museums, Botanic Gardens,

* The cost to Government of thus aiding in the primary and superior education of the youth of all classes within and beyond the Colonial Border, now amounts to upwards of £40,000 per annum; including the expenses of administration. The local contributions for the same purpose amount to £43,000.

In 1860, the number of schools in the Colony was 225, the number of scholars, 18,757; the State expenditure £15,262; and the local expenditure £8,358.

In 1876, the number of schools had increased to 684; the number of scholars to 56,000; the State expenditure to £40,000; and the local expenditure to about £43,000.

and an Association for the promotion of the Fine Arts, have been partly established and supported by the public and partly by the State. One of the best things the Colony has to boast of is the handsome building in Cape Town containing under one roof the South African Library and Museum. The Library Hall is a fine room about eighty feet long by forty feet broad, well lighted and fitted with galleries and recesses, which are lined with bookshelves and books. It contains upwards of 40,000 volumes in every department of literature and science, and is open and available for study daily to all classes of the community. No introduction or recommendation of any kind is required, and the whole is therefore in every respect a public institution. A narrow vestibule leads from it to the Museum, which occupies the other wing of the building, and is filled with a very interesting collection, numbering many thousand specimens of the mammalia, birds, fishes, reptiles, insects, minerals and other objects illustrative of the natural history of this and other countries.

The country Libraries are thirty in number, the most noticeable being, one at Port Elizabeth, which contains 10,000 volumes ; one at Graham's Town, 6,000 volumes ; one at King William's Town, 7,000 volumes ; one at Graaff-Reinet 6,000 volumes ; and one at Alice (Lovedale), 4,000 volumes.

The Press—ever since its freedom from Government control was secured by the late Mr. John Fairbairn in 1827— has exerted a highly educational influence in the Colony. In the

metropolis, there are now two daily, one weekly and four tri-weekly papers published—two of the latter being in the Dutch language. There are also English and Dutch literary periodicals—the *Cape Monthly Magazine* and the *Tydschrift*. The metropolitan journals circulate largely throughout the Western Districts, and only two newspapers are published out of Cape Town; but in the Midland, Northern, and especially in the Eastern Districts, almost every town and village has its local paper. Port Elizabeth and Graham's Town have two or three. The colonial press generally, it may be added, is conducted with an amount of ability and energy that commands admiration from those acquainted with its working in larger communities.

In an educational as well as social point of view the Postal Service is likewise of great importance. Considering the immense and sparsely populated character of the country over which the inland mails have to be carried, it is remarkable how efficiently and regularly the work is done. The vehicle in use for conveyance of the post is a rough, strong dog-cart, the body of which forms a well, where the letter-bags are stowed; over this a few passengers may be seated *dos a dos* along with the driver, and in that manner it is not uncommon to make a journey of 400 or 500 miles at a stretch with only occasional halts to change horses. The rate of travelling, including stoppages, is about ten miles an hour. A uniform charge of four-pence per half ounce is charged on inland letters; but in towns and along the lines of railway, wherever

there is daily communication, there is a penny post. By convention with Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State, all mail matter passing to or from there is exempt from postage for transit, and *vice versa*. As far as postal matters are concerned, these neighbouring territories are exactly in the same position as if they were united with the Colony in one South African Dominion.

The Mail Service to and from England is now a weekly one. By the contracts entered into with the Union Company and Donald Currie & Co.—and which are to continue in force until September 1882—it is stipulated that their steamers are to perform the voyage in 26 days, and in 27 days when the packet is appointed to touch either at St. Helena or Ascension. Premiums for speed at the rate of £4 3s. 4d. are allowed for every complete hour in which the passage is made under the period of 26 or 27 days, and at the rate of £6 5s. per hour for each such passage under the period of 23 or 24 days respectively. The contracting companies are further entitled to receive the postage collected on the mails they convey.

THE CENTRES OF POPULATION AND MEANS OF TRANSIT.

THE city of Cape Town is the metropolis of the Cape Colony. It is by far the most populous of any of the towns scattered throughout South Africa; and its position as the seat of Government, as the meeting place of the Legislature, and as an important commercial entrepot, together with its many natural attractions and advantages, have contributed to gather around it a comparatively wealthy and stationary community, whose social circles possess all the charms of old established and cultivated European society.

The number of inhabitants of the city and suburbs is about 50,000, of whom two-thirds may be said to be residents of the city proper within its municipal boundaries. This embraces both white and coloured races, with all their varieties of nationality, and gradations of blood, from fairest Saxon to darkest Ethiopian.

The first glimpse of Cape Town from seaward does not impress a stranger with its dimensions. The massive wall of Table Mountain forming the back ground, and the Devil's Peak and Lion's Head enclosing it on either flank, dwarfs the valley where the city is laid out. The

houses present a mass of flat-roofed dwellings, a few church towers and some factory or mill chimneys rising up amongst them, with scattered villas, gardens, and vineyards, on the outskirts, joining on to the pine and silver-tree plantations which clothe the base of the mountain. But if anyone takes the trouble to visit the more elevated points of view, such as are afforded by the Garden suburbs, or the drive along the "Kloof Road," a perfect bird's-eye picture of the town and circling bay may be had, in many respects comparing favourably with Naples, Rio, and others of the most beautifully-situated places in the world.

The Dutch founders of Cape Town laid out its squares and streets with mathematical preciseness. The main thoroughfares run parallel to each other from the mountain to the sea, and are crossed at right angles by secondary streets of lesser width. The central and principal street is Adderley Street, or the "Heerengracht," as it was formerly termed. Here, on the left hand are the New Railway Station buildings, the Commercial Exchange and Reading-room, the Grand Military Parade ground, and, higher up, the Dutch Reformed Church with its old vane-topped Flemish spire alongside; while on the right hand there stretches a line of merchants' stores, banks, offices and shops—many of them large buildings with decorated exteriors, plate-glass windows and all the attractions of the modern style of street architecture. St. George's Street, adjoining Adderley Street, is also a fine open handsome street, in which the Post Office, the

city club, and several banks and newspaper offices are situate, and St. George's Cathedral with its Grecian front and ornamented tower stands at its upper end. Westward of these central thoroughfares, in such streets as Loop, Burg and Bree streets, the old-fashioned Dutch mansions of the early settlers may be seen. The houses, which are spacious and lofty, have invariably flat roofs, massive white-washed fronts, numerous windows with small panes, and a stoep or terrace rising from the street at the entrance, while behind them is frequently a small garden or trelissed vine. Eastward again, the modern part of the town where the English immigrants have settled, is more distinctly marked. Rows of semi-detached cottages or pretentious villa residences, with slate roofs and little gardens, are extending with the growth of population all over the Table Valley.

The Government Gardens, at the top of Adderley-street, serve the purposes of a public park. The central walk extends for three quarters of a mile through an avenue of grand old oaks, affording a grateful shade and pleasant place of resort to the inhabitants. The Library and Museum are close to the entrance of this avenue, and the Fine Arts Gallery is in New street, facing the Botanic Gardens. These Botanic Gardens, although not more than fourteen acres in extent, are laid out with grass plots, shrubberies, and handsome conservatories, and contain upwards of 8,000 varieties of trees and plants, embracing rare exotic productions as well as specimens of the indigenous Flora. An

extensive collection of Cape plants, authenticated by Harvey, Sonder, and other authorities, is also available for reference in the Herbarium attached to the institution.

Government House, the official residence of Her Majesty's Representative in the Colony, is on the left side of the Gardens, with a public entrance from the top of Grave street. It is a heavy irregular pile, originally commenced by the Dutch Company's officials, more than a century and a half ago, and altered and modernized from time to time. The other public buildings occupied by the various chief departments of the Civil Government, and the Courts of Law, form a massive flat-fronted quadrangle, stretching from the lower end of Grave street to Adderley street. There are accommodated the Treasury, Audit, Deed's Registry, Survey, Attorney-General's, the Judges', and other offices; but many other departments, such as those of Education, Native Affairs, Public Works and Railways are scattered about in private houses, rented until suitable public offices are provided.

The military head-quarters of the Commander of the Forces and his staff are in the Castle—a quaint specimen of the ancient citadel, of pentagonal form, with ravelins, glacis, ditches, gate, sallyport, and all the other paraphernalia of the old fortifications. Ample garrison accommodation for the troops is provided in the main barracks in Caledon Square,—an extensive range of buildings which were nearly completed by the Dutch (one wing only was unfinished)

when the cession of the Colony transferred it ready-made to our hands.

Another possession from the olden time is the Town House in Greenmarket square, where the Mayor and Town Council carry on the municipal administration. It is a plain but substantial building, with cool, roomy hall and offices. The city has a regular water supply, is well lighted by gas, and a system of drainage and paving is now being proceeded with which will greatly improve its sanitary condition. The markets are generally plentifully supplied with fish, vegetables, and fruit, and public sales of produce take place weekly. One curious local institution is the "parade sales" held every Saturday, on the Parade-ground, where articles of the most multifarious character—lands, shares, goods, cattle, equipages, furniture and "old clo's"—are put up to auction, attracting crowds of citizens of all classes, either as buyers or as loungers and lookers-on.

The surroundings of Cape Town are very pleasant. The marine suburbs of Green Point and Sea Point are connected with the city by a tramway, and at any hour of the day one may exchange the glowing heat or dusty streets for the pretty residences along the sea-shore, or the healthful breeze and magnificent ocean view of Three Anchor Bay. But the most populous and fashionable suburban resorts are the villages of Mowbray, Rondebosch, Newlands, Claremont, and Wynberg, on the eastern side of Table Mountain. In such pleasant sylvan retreats the city merchants and Government officials delight

to dwell, and there is a great deal to justify their choice; for during the summer months they are far cooler, the difference of temperature at Wynberg being as much as ten degrees less than that of Cape Town, owing to its more elevated position and its exposure to the winds coming up from the south.

The natural beauties of landscape, heightened by the art and industry of the residents, has made these parts a microcosm of the best of South African scenery. Any one travelling by the railway from Cape Town will be charmed with the green lanes along the line from Rosebank to Claremont, the glimpses of shaggy wood and mountain precipices above Rondebosch and Newlands, and the open breezy flats stretching from Wynberg across to the Stellenbosch hills. The drive along the main road in the same direction is even more delightful,—through the glorious avenue of pines and oaks extending onwards from Mowbray; past the Rondebosch village church and the woods of Westbrook; past the shady groves of Newlands and the slopes of Protea, the episcopal residence of the Bishop of Cape Town; up the Wynberg Hill, with its clumps and thickets of silver trees; and on to Cogill's, Rathfelder's, or the hospitable homesteads and rich vineyards of Constantia. Along this route the alternate views of hill and dale, dotted with cottages, mansions, and verandahed retreats, with the grand background of bold mountains, are unequalled for picturesque beauty in any part of the Colony.

Port Elizabeth, situate on the shores of Algoa Bay, is the chief commercial town of the Colony and of South Africa. Its population is about 14,000, of whom the greater portion are Europeans. The visitor arriving there by any of the mail steamers will find before him all the evidences of an enterprising, prosperous, and populous place. For two or three miles along the water-side and up the sloping hill ascending from it, and on the brow of the height above, there rise in succession warehouses, stores, manufactories, shops, offices, dwelling houses, churches, schools, hospitals, villas, and other buildings, of every description and variety of architecture. Close to the principal landing-place, in Jetty-street, is the Eastern Districts' Railway station, and along the sea wall skirting the water's edge the lines of rail are laid connecting Graham's Town, Uitenhage, and Graaff-Reinet as well as Cradock and the Northern Districts with the port. Immediately above this is the central and business part of the town, forming what is known as the Main-street, extending from Market-square through Queen's-street, and Prince's-street to the Prison-buildings at the North-end. Nowhere in the Colony is there a livelier, busier scene than here, especially during the height of the transit trade, when the up-country wagons come in laden with bales of wool, skins, or ivory, to load up again with merchandise for the interior towns and villages, as far even as the limits of the Free State and the Transvaal Republic.

The principal public building is the Town

Hall in Market-square. It is a stately and commodious structure, somewhat in the Italian style but with a portico of Corinthian columns, and is said to have cost £25,000. The Town Council offices are there, as well as the chamber of commerce, the public reading-room and library, and a small museum; and there is a magnificent hall about eighty feet long by forty broad—undoubtedly the finest in South Africa for public assemblies and entertainments. Standing on the broad flight of steps at the entrance of this building, the Bayonian (as a resident here is termed) may feel proud as he surveys the unmistakable evidences of commercial enterprise and wealth around him—all the growth of little more than fifty years' British colonization. There are many handsomely-finished buildings, used for business purposes, which would be creditable to any English city. Some of the mercantile warehouses are of great dimensions, and contain extensive and valuable stocks of imported goods, which are disposed of chiefly through the medium of "branch" or "supported establishments" spread throughout every district northwards and eastwards, and even beyond the Border. And it is here, as the focus of the colonial import and export trade, that the principal banking institutions—the Standard Bank of British South Africa, and the Oriental Bank, have their chief offices.*

* The Cape of Good Hope Bank, whose head office is in Cape Town, has also one of its branches at Port Elizabeth.

The best residences of the inhabitants are on what is termed the "Hill,"—in contradistinction to the "town below"—a flat table-land, on the terraced ground above the Main-street. Its aspect and surroundings are very pleasant and enjoyable, as the height is generally fanned by fresh cool breezes from the sea. Scattered irregularly over it are many fine mansions and pretty villa residences. There are also some handsome churches, such as St. Augustine's Roman Catholic Church, the Scottish Presbyterian Church, and Trinity Church; an admirably managed Provincial Hospital; a well-endowed collegiate establishment, the Grey Institute; and a well regulated Club, where, after the labours of the day, the mercantile class usually congregate for relaxation, and courteously extend their hospitalities to visitors. On the open flat beyond the Hill, there is the attractive St. George's Park, laid out and planted by the Corporation of the town some twelve years ago, and maintained by an annual vote of £500 from the local rates. It has most agreeable walks through avenues of trees, shrubs and flowering plants, and is ornamented with a fine conservatory, rock-work, water basins, and grassy plots.

The country about Port Elizabeth is very bare and uninviting; but there are some localities such as the banks of the Zwartkop River and the coast lands of Emerald Hill and Van Staden's River which afford suburban retreats; and the pleasant town of Uitenhage is within an hour's reach by railway.

Graham's Town is inland about 85 miles from Port Elizabeth. Next to the beautiful environs of the Western metropolis, it is beyond question the most pleasant place of residence in the Colony. Embosomed in green hills—the spurs of the Zuurberg—at an elevation of 1,760 feet above the sea, the city, with its broad streets lined with trees and its houses interspersed with gardens, presents a thoroughly English appearance, and is an acknowledged and favourite health-resort. The principal thoroughfare and business place is High street. At its upper end stand the old Drostdy buildings (now a public school) where the Colonial Parliament had its sittings in the session of 1864. Not far from it are the Botanic Gardens, where there is a fine conservatory erected to the memory of Colonel Fordyce of H.M's 74th regiment, who fell in the Kafir war of 1851. In the middle of High street stands the St. George's Cathedral, where, in front of the communion table, a monument is erected to the memory of Col. Graham, from whom the city takes its name. Lower down the street is Commemoration Chapel, the principal place of worship of the Wesleyan denomination, erected to commemorate the gratitude of the British immigrants of 1820 for the blessings enjoyed by them in the Albany settlement.

Although much smaller than Port Elizabeth in point of population (its inhabitants numbering not more than 7,000), Graham's Town ranks as the official metropolis of the Eastern and Frontier Districts. It is a cathedral city and place of residence of the Bishops of the Church of England

and the Roman Catholic Church, and the Superintendent of the Wesleyan body. It is also the seat of the Eastern Districts Court with attendant judges, solicitor-general, barristers and members of the side bar. There are among its local institutions a Museum, a Natural History Society, and a Public Library. Formerly the city was the head quarters of the military, and the residence of the Lieut.-Governor. The extensive military barracks are now appropriated to public uses. There is an excellent Public Hospital, and a Provincial Lunatic Asylum. A spacious assembly room, the Albany Hall, is available for meetings and amusements, and there is a Club, as well as various Masonic, Odd-fellows, Templars, and other societies, largely patronised by the inhabitants.

King William's Town, or "King," as it is sometimes shortly termed, ranks as the fourth in size and importance of all the colonial towns. It is well situated for the purposes of commerce, being on the highway from the harbour of East London to the interior, and from the Eastern Districts to the Transkei and Kafirland. It has also the chief command of the native trade, extending beyond the Border and north to Basutoland. The town itself is pleasantly situated, stretching along the banks of the Buffalo River. At the western end is the native location. Next comes the military barracks and officers' quarters. Then there is the business part of the town, with its public buildings, churches, clubs, stores, and private residences; while more to the eastward is the German

settlers' town, with its thatched verandahed cottages; and beyond that the camp and head quarters of the Frontier Armed and Mounted Police—the nucleus of our colonial defensive force. The Town-hall is a large and capacious building, reflecting credit on the place. Between it and the river is the Botanic Garden, with an area of about fourteen acres of alluvial soil of the richest description, where everything grows in the greatest luxuriance. On a rise to the north, again, is the handsome and imposing edifice erected by Sir George Grey (and known as the Grey Hospital) for the purpose of breaking the belief of the natives in witch doctors, by placing skilful medical treatment and maintenance within their reach, free of charge. Close to this spot are the new public offices. The population of the town is about 5,000 souls, including the garrison and natives.

Graaff-Reinet, the oldest and the largest of the towns in the inland districts, is about equal in size and importance with King William's Town. It is situate near the centre of the Colony at the base of the hilly range where the Sunday's River leaves the Sneeuwberg Mountains for the plains. These hills rise behind it to a height of 1,000 or 1,500 feet. The summit of one of them, the Spandeau Kop, has a rough resemblance to a haystack, and adjoining it there is a ridge of loosely-piled trap rock with pillars of columnar basalt, standing out in bold relief to the height of 300 or 400 feet, having a very picturesque effect. This spot is known by the name of the

Valley of Desolation. At the foot of these hills, the Sunday's River sweeps round and forms a bend about a mile across, and in this bend the town is laid out, an abundant supply of water being distributed through it by several channels from the bed of the stream. The streets are wide, and many of them are planted with rows of trees on each side. Formerly oranges and lemons were the principal trees, and their evergreen foliage and golden fruit were a peculiar feature of the town, but most of them succumbed to a scaly disease, which a few years ago attacked orange trees everywhere in the Colony, and now their place is supplied by rosy oleanders, accacias, blue-gums, cypresses and Kafirbooms. The principal buildings are the Dutch Reformed Church, with its clock tower and spire, a handsome English Church, the Government Offices, the Town-hall, the College, Masonic Lodge, the Free Protestant Church, and the Public Library. Two well conducted newspapers are published in the town; three banks are in full operation, and its market is second only to Port Elizabeth. There are several large and comfortable private buildings and stores of modern style, but the houses generally are of the old-fashioned type, with thatched roofs, gables and stoeps, or raised terraces, the usual form of dwelling of the old colonists. Nearly all have vineyards, gardens, or orchards, or some spot of greenery attached to them. These give the town a very pleasing appearance, and its marked contrast with the surrounding arid Karoo plains obtained for it

long ago the appropriate title of the "Gem of the Desert." A quantity of fruit and brandy is raised by the possessors of the vineyards and gardens; and there are several steam and water-mills, and other local industries; but the trade of the place is principally maintained by its being the commercial centre for the surrounding Midland districts.

There are several other country towns, such as the Paarl, Stellenbosch, and Worcester, near to Cape Town, each with from 3,000 to 5,000 inhabitants. Uitenhage, adjoining Port Elizabeth, has about 4,000, and Queen's Town numbers 2,500. Twenty years ago, antelopes were coursing over the grounds where the latter town now stands.

The means of inter-communication throughout the Colony have of late greatly improved. Nature did little for the country in this respect, there being no navigable rivers available, and the mountain ranges presenting very formidable barriers until they were rent open and highways constructed over them. This of necessity made the primitive "bullock wagon" the most serviceable and characteristic type of South African travelling.* On all the colonial roads it may be seen, steadily moving along, at the rate of two or three

* In the Western Districts mule-trains are now commonly employed, with great success. For transit to the Diamond Fields the American coaches which Cobb and Co. made famous in Australia and New Zealand have been introduced. But the ordinary travelling vehicle is the Cape cart—a tented dog-cart capable of seating three persons comfortably besides the driver, and drawn by two or four horses.

and a half miles an hour, drawn by eighteen or twenty oxen, and sometimes laden with as much as 8,000 or 10,000 lbs. weight of produce or merchandise. It is a big clumsy looking conveyance, but extremely strong, and wonderfully adapted to twist and turn and recover itself through roads and river-beds, which would be thought utterly impassable. To many a farmer it is quite a home whilst "trekking" with his flocks to new pastures, or journeying to the sea ports, or riding his produce to market; and even to a stranger it is not an unpleasant means of travel, if time is a matter of no consideration, and there is a determination to enjoy the novelty of bush-life.

This mode of transport, however, has proved quite unequal to the requirements of the country. In dry seasons it at once breaks down, and Commerce is stopped by the inability to transmit supplies which are in demand, or to get out the produce which is lying idle in the inland districts. Railways have accordingly been found to be essential to colonial wants, and during the past three or four years works of this class have been undertaken which in the preceding decade would have been deemed extravagant and visionary.

The principal lines of railway run along the arterial traffic routes leading from the chief seaports to the interior—namely:

From Cape Town (Table Bay) to the Paarl, Worcester and Beaufort West (320 miles), with a subsidiary line to Stellenbosch and Malmesbury (45 miles); and a suburban line to Wynberg (8 miles).

From Port Elizabeth (Algoa Bay)—in one

direction to Uitenhage and Graaff-Reinet 182 miles; in another direction to Graham's Town 90 miles; and in a third direction to Cradock 182 miles.

And from Panmure (Buffalo River Mouth) there is a line communicating by a branch with King William's Town, and extending inland in the direction of Queen's Town, 166 miles.

All the railways are the property of the Government. The Cape Town and Wellington, and Wynberg lines were constructed on the 4 feet 8 inches gauge, but on the former a third rail has been laid adapting it to the narrow 3 feet 6 inches gauge of the Worcester and Beaufort Extension, which is to be the uniform gauge of the colonial railways. The cost of the Wellington line (58 miles in length) as purchased from the Company which constructed it was £771,458, and the Wynberg line (8 miles) £75,000. The narrow gauge railways since opened and in progress have been constructed and equipped at the rate of about £7,000 per mile.

Telegraph lines are established between the metropolis and nearly all the chief towns of divisions, as well as along the railways. There are also lines direct from Cape Town to the Diamond Fields and to the Orange Free State; and one recently constructed through Kafirland to the border of Natal. The entire length of the lines recently opened is 3,320 miles, with about seventy offices. The charge for messages within the Colony is at the uniform rate of 2s. 6d. per message of twenty words, and to Griqualand West and Orange Free State 5s. The gross

revenue of the department for 1876 amounted to about £26,000,

The Colony is not yet in direct telegraph communication with England; but Reuter has an agency at Cape Town for the transmission of messages *via* Madeira, the nearest point where there is a cable. The conveyance of a message to or from Madeira by steamer, however, occupies not less than seventeen days, and the importance of closer communication is now being generally recognised.

Two or three years ago, a contract was entered into by the Colonial Government with Hooper's Telegraph Works Company for laying a submarine cable from Port Elizabeth *via* Natal, Mauritius, and Aden, but owing to financial difficulties the affair fell through, the contractors paying compensation for breach of agreement. Since then it has been estimated the cost of the work will be higher than the Hooper Company calculated. There is a prospect, however, that the British Government, in consideration of the importance of the undertaking from an imperial point of view, will aid the undertaking.* The bold scheme of an overland line through the interior of Africa to the Cape Colony, has been discussed and seriously entertained by some practical telegraphists. Mr. Watson, the president of the

* Earl Carnarvon, late Secretary of State for the Colonies, in directing attention to the political and commercial importance of telegraphic communication with South Africa, mentioned recently that the total amount of trade which passes by the Cape of Good Hope represents not less than 160 millions sterling a year.

Chamber of Commerce of Cape Town, together with Mr. Kerry Nichols and the representatives of Messrs. Siemen Brothers, after considering and discussing the matter, arrived at the conclusion that, after making allowance for all unforeseen contingencies, a line from Gondokoro (where there is now, or will shortly be, a telegraph connection) to the latitude of Delagoa Bay, a distance of 2,500 miles—could not possibly cost more than £200 a mile, or a total of half a million sterling, while the estimate for a submarine cable is £1,300,000.

TABLE OF DISTANCES of the principal Towns and Villages of the Cape, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal, from the three chief Towns of the Colony.[a]

NAME OF TOWN OR VILLAGE.	DISTANCE FROM		
	Cape Town.	Port Elizabeth.	Graham's Town.
Cape Colony.			
Albert, Prince	282	300	377
Alice	652	143	52
Aliwal North	666	306	216
Aliwal South	270	225	380
Beaufort, Fort	631	131	46
Beaufort West	330	280	297
Bedford	582	150	160
Burghersdorp	630	296	206
Caledon	70	430	515
Calvinia	300	656	547
Ceres	75	463	552
Clanwilliam	160	573	662
Colesberg	540	310	245
Cradock	550	180	115
George	290	195	295
Graaff-Reinet	480	170	150
Graham's Town	585	85	...
Hope Town	600	395	480
Humansdorp	430	70	155
Kimberley	650	444	360
Malmesbury	45	492	577
Middelburg	552	222	175
Paarl	38	465	550
Port Elizabeth	500	...	85
Queen's Town	640	205	120
Richmond	450	245	225

[a] Adapted (with permission) from Mr. H. Hall's "Manual of South African Geography."

TABLE OF DISTANCES, &c., (*continued*).

NAME OF TOWN OR VILLAGE.	DISTANCE FROM		
	Cape Town.	Port Elizabeth.	Graham's Town.
Cape Colony.			
Riversdale	202	298	383
Robertson	100	400	485
Seymour	655	155	70
Simon's Town	24	524	609
Somesret East	547	125	80
Springbokfontein	396	730	747
Stellenbosch	26	480	565
Swellendam	140	360	445
Tulbagh	80	458	543
Uitenhage	500	18	78
Victoria West	410	300	300
Wellington	45	472	557
Worcester	80	420	505
King William's Town	680	165	80
Natal.			
Pietermaritzburg	1,136	910	826
Orange Free State.			
Bloemfontein	680	470	385
Smithfield	696	336	246
Transvaal.			
Potchefstrom	960	720	640
Pretoria	1,060	820	740

THE LAST CENSUS RETURNS.*

THE Census of the Cape Colony taken on 7th March 1875, is the latest official return we have of the numbers and condition of the people.

The population at that date consisted of 720,984 persons. Of these the European or white numbered 236,783 souls; and the coloured 484,201 souls. They are thus particularised.

	MALES.	FEMALES.	TOTAL PERSONS.
European or white	123,910	112,873	236,783
Malay	5,182	5,635	10,817
Hottentot ...	50,579	47,982	98,561
Fingo	36,435	37,071	73,506
Kafir & Betshuana	109,817	104,316	214,133
Mixed and Others	43,705	43,479	87,184
Total	369,628	351,356	720,984

The European or White class, consists of the descendants of Dutch and French settlers, and of the immigrants and their offspring, chiefly of English and other Teutonic peoples, who more lately entered the Colony. The number of Dutch and French origin may be approximately estimated at 150,000 souls which is nearly the number of those who profess the Lutheran and Dutch Reformed creeds, leaving a population of

* The substance of this chapter is taken from the excellent Census Report of the Government statist, J. W. Bertram, Esq.

some 80,000 to represent the contributions from the mother country and the rest of the world.

Looking at the birthplaces of this white population, we find 204,529 were born in British Possessions in Africa, 1,334 in other African States. From Great Britain the Colony had received 22,032 immigrants, and from other British possessions, excluding those just mentioned, 749. Those born at sea numbered 131, and the birthplaces of 843 persons were not known or not stated. Only 239 persons were born in France, but there were 4,685 immigrants, from Germany, 879 from Holland, and 421 from Scandinavia, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. The United States contributed 264 persons to the population. From British Possessions in Africa outside the Colony there were 1,066 white immigrants, of whom 464 came from St. Helena.

The "coloured" embraces five classes,—namely, (1) the "Malay," chiefly of Asiatic origin, having been originally brought to the Cape from the Dutch Possessions in the East, and still adhering to the creed of Islam; (2) the "Hottentots," including the Korannas and the scanty remnant of Bushmen (231 male and 190 female); (3) the "Fingoes," remnants of dispersed Zulu tribes who were "dogs" or "slaves" of the Amakosa Kafirs until released from their bondage by the Colonial Government in 1835; (4) the Kafirs proper, among whom are classed the Betshuanas, all forming portion of the Bantu family, extending from Kafirland and Damaraland northwards to the Central lake-regions of Africa. The leading tribes of this group within

the colonial borders, are the Amakosa and the Abatembu or Tambookies—the former tracing back the genealogical line of their chiefs for ten or twelve generations, and the latter, who claim to be the elder branch of the family, for three generations further back. Lastly there is the "mixed and others," partly descendants of the former negro slave race, partly sprung from the intercourse of the colonists with the Aborigines, and partly foreigners.

The chief occupations of the people are agricultural and pastoral, as the following classification will shew :—

	PERSONS.
Total Population	720,984
Persons engaged in the general or local government, or in the Defence or Protection of the Country	4,585
Persons engaged in the learned Professions, in Literature, art, and science, with their immediate subordinates	3.381
Persons engaged in the domestic offices of wives and mistresses of families	51,923
Persons engaged in entertaining and performing personal offices for man	31,343
Persons buying and selling, keeping and lending money, houses, or goods of various kinds ...	5,971
Persons engaged in the conveyance of men, animals, goods, and messages	7,343
Persons possessing, working, or cultivating land, raising or dealing in animals or following Pursuits subsidiary thereto	209,136
Persons engaged in working and dealing in art, and mechanic productions in which matters of various kinds are employed in combination	7,776
Persons employed in working and dealing in Textile Fabrics, Dress, and in Fibrous Material	7,385

* The designation "Kafir" is an Arabic term of reproach signifying, "infidel," and is not in use in the language of the Kafirs Proper.

	Persons.
Persons working and dealing in food and drinks	1,454
Persons working and dealing in Animal and vegetable substances	2,349
Persons working and dealing in minerals ...	5,315
Labourers and Others—Branch undefined ...	12,298
Persons of property and rank, not returned under any office or occupation...	375
Persons supported by the community	2,930
Scholars,c hildren, and persons of no specified occupation	367,467

Of occupations distinctive of colonial life there were traders and "togtgangers," who numbered 623, and 3,769 carriers and their subordinates. Of the considerable class of "bywooners" (*métayers*) only 77 were so returned ; of squatters there were 1,314, of whom 50 were white. The mass of the coloured population is most fitly designated as peasantry. Among ordinary industries may be mentioned pipemakers, 17 in number ; and those engaged about carts and waggons numbering 1,350 persons. The washing and pressing of wool employed 479 persons, 14 were returned as gold and diamond diggers. There were 146 wall builders and 31 persons returned as engaged in collecting and transporting salt. In the more arid districts are 383 dam-makers and 26 well-sinkers, with one "waterfinder." 7 persons were described as dealing in diamonds.

According to the Census, the number of Inhabited Dwellings was 55,212, exclusive of 76,022 inhabited huts and tents. The number of inhabited dwellings to the square mile was 0·66. No less than 10,110 houses were returned undescribed ; but being principally outside of

cities and towns, these may be assumed to belong chiefly to the classes containing one to three rooms, of which there were returned 26,089 or nearly one-half the total number. Of all other edifices in the Colony including stores and sheds there were 27,713. Edifices in course of construction numbered 526.

The number of persons to an inhabited dwelling in the Colony was 5·49, or excluding tents 5·53. In each family there were generally 4·59 persons. But the size of families was different in different races. Among Europeans or white the average was only 4·11 members to one family, where the average in England and Wales is 4·50. The Malay family contains only 4·09 members; the Hottentot 4·48; the Fingo rises to 6·04; the Kafir to 5·79; the mixed race to 4·88.

With reference to the conjugal state, there were, among Europeans or whites, 36,044 husbands and 34,777 wives, with 2,124 widowers and 4,817 widows. The number of bachelors aged 20 and upwards was 20,446; the number of spinsters aged 15 and upwards was 21,367.

In the coloured population, the largest proportion of the married is among Malays, where husbands form 33·69 per cent., and wives 31·18 per cent. of the male and female population respectively. In mixed and other races, the proportions are 17·12 per cent. of husbands and 18·94 of wives. In Hottentots they are 14·20 and 15·92. In Fingo 5·53 and 5·65, and lastly, in Kafir and Betshuana 2·58 and 2·43 per cent. The proportion of the widowed among Malays,

Hottentots, and Mixed does not greatly differ from that in the European population ; but in the Fingo, Kafir, and Betshuana it is larger, the widows also being to the widowed as 7 to 1.

It is necessary here to distinguish "regular" marriages, which are recognized by the law of the Colony, from "irregular" marriages, which are not legally valid, although they have the sanction of national custom. Of the irregularly married there were 50,375 husbands, and 55,768 wives. The widowed numbered 1,299 widowers, and 8,179 widows. The excess of wives and widows is due to polygamy ; thus among Fingoes, Kafirs, and Betshuanas the proportion of widows to widowers is more than 10 to 1 ; though in this case war and famine may have influenced the proportions at the more advanced ages.

The number of polygamists among Hottentots and the mixed races is small. Among the former there were 15 husbands and 33 wives ; among the latter 19 husbands and 43 wives so returned. But among Fingoes, Kafirs, Betshuanas, of 36,657 husbands 5,487 or 14·96 per cent. had more than one wife ; and of 41,288 wives, 12,241 or 29·64 per cent., were members of polygamous families.

Of the periods of age of the population, we find that the number of persons under 15 years of age was 314,516 ; persons between 15 and 55, 352,399 ; those aged 55 and upwards, 43,000 ; and not less than 11,069 were of unspecified age.

In relation to the proportion of the sexes : as regards the European or white urban population, females are in excess of males at age periods

below 20; after 20, males assume and maintain a considerable superiority, which declines to nearly an equality at the age 60 to 65, after which years females rise in increasing majority with the higher ages. In the rural European or white population, males are in excess of females at all age periods. This excess rises to nearly 19 in the 100 at the age 50 to 55, and to upwards of 19 in the 100 between 65 and 75. As regards the coloured urban population, females are in excess at all age periods under 30, the excess being 10 per cent. between 25 and 30. Between 30 and 50, males largely preponderate. After 50, females resume and maintain an increasing majority. In the rural coloured population boys are to girls below 15, as 50·86 to 49·14, and between 15 and 20, as 51·36 to 48·64. There is an excess of females between 20 and 35; then males assume a marked superiority, until 70, after which age females are in excess to the term of life.

The number of white children between 5 and 15 who read and write was 28,371; of those who could read only 6,150,—the total number of children being 66,061. The proportions per cent. were 42·95 and 9·31 respectively. At the same age period the proportions were in:

	Read and Write.	Read only.
Victoria ...	63·94	20·65
New Zealand...	58·99	22·26

Of persons aged 15 years and upwards, there were in a total of 132,100 souls, 118,958 who

could read and write, 3,052 who could read only. The proportions per cent. were as follows, in comparison with two other colonies:—

	Read and Write.	Read only
The Cape ...	90·05	2·31
Victoria ...	84·47	6·48
New Zealand	92·89	3·89

In the coloured population there were, in a total of 210,446 children under 15, 7,229 who could read and write, 4,673 who could read only; and of 263,072 above 15 there were 22,421 who could read and write, 14,850 who could read only.

As regards the religious denominations existing in the Colony, the tables are of imperfect value, because a great number of persons were described simply as Protestants or Christians; but the numbers of Catholics, Wesleyans, and Moravians may be nearly correct. The following is the return given:—

Episcopalians, including Church of Ireland ...	40,041
Protestants and Christians not otherwise defined	58,290
Presbyterians, including Free Church of Scotland, Reformed Presbyterians, Scotch Protestants, and United Presbyterians ...	7,673
Independents, including Congregationalists, London Mission, Dutch Independent, Non-Conformist, Union Church, and Free Church	23,747
Wesleyans, including Methodists, P.M. Methodists, Independent Methodists, Primitive Methodists, and Ranters	32,277
Baptists	2,391
Lutherans, including Rhenish Mission, German Evangelical, Berlin Mission, Rhenish Evangelical, and Evangelical Lutheran	17,421

Dutch Reformed Church, including Ebenezer and Reformed Church	171,496
Moravians	10,395
Unitarians	66
Other Protestants	1,292
Roman Catholics, including Ultramontanes, Old Catholics, and Greek Church	9,667
Other Denominations	23
Jews	538
Mohammedans	11,214
No Religion	277,555
No Denomination	184
Unspecified	56,308
Object to State	406

Among minor denominations are 148 Free Protestants, 8 Quakers, 14 Shakers, and 30 Swedenborgians. The Greek Church is represented by 18 souls, and there were 19 Mormons and 4 Hindoos.

Of European or white, 32,522 were returned as Protestant. Members of the Church of England numbered 26,548 ; the Dutch and Reformed Churches counted 143,076 souls. There were 7,960 Wesleyans, and 6,278 Lutherans ; and 8,666 Catholics.

In the coloured population the majority of Malays is Mohammedan ; 152 are not specified, and the small remainder are Christian converts or have no religion. Among Hottentots 21,212 were returned as Pagans ; the number not specified was 27,567, who may be classed with certainty as Pagan. Of the remainder 10,058 are described as Protestants or Christians ; Independents number 8,986 ; Lutherans, 4,253 ; Dutch Reformed, 11,978 ; Moravian, 7,470 ; Wesleyans, 3,193 ; and Mohammedans, 19.

Among Fingoes 55,000 were Pagans and 1,072

of unspecified faith. Wesleyans numbered 7,667; Independents, 3,637; Presbyterians, 1,758. Among Kafirs and Betshuanas 189,229 were Pagan, 3,771 of unspecified belief; Wesleyans numbered 8,315; Independents, 5,307; Episcopalians, 1,117.

In the Mixed and Other races, 11,920 were of no religion, 21,814 of no specified belief; 10,990 were described as Christians or Protestants.

The time at which the Census was taken was most unfavourable for a representation of the agricultural and pastoral resources. Droughts in some parts and rains and floods in others had wrought much damage causing a diminution of produce as well as a reduction of stock. Besides this, many statements made by farmers were defective from ignorance and fear of taxation. The returns therefore present rather an underestimate than an exaggerated view of the industry of the colony.

The total area of holdings was 39,947,734 morgen (the colonial land measure, equal to 2.11654 English acres); but the area of land under cultivation for different crops was only 274,413 morgen. The number of vines planted was 69,910,215. The crops produced were: wheat 1,687,935 bushels; barley 447,991 bushels; rye 214,260 bushels; oats 918,494 bushels; oathay 937,363 bushels; peas, beans and pulse 60,636 bushels; potatoes 371,523 bushels; tobacco 3,060,241 lbs.; dried fruits 2,672,761 lbs. aloes 337,910 lbs.; wine 4,485,665 imperial gallons; brandy 1,067,832 gallons.

The number of the different kinds of live stock was:—

Horses	205,985
Mules and Asses	29,318
Draught Cattle	421,762
Other Cattle	689,951
Woolled Sheep	9,986,240
Other Sheep	990,423
Angora Goats	877,988
Other Goats	2,187,214
Pigs, ...	116,738
Ostriches	21,751.
Dogs, ...	140,948

If the Colony were uniformly divided into areas of 10 square miles each, such areas would represent farms of a not uncommon size—3,024 morgen, and would (if population and stock were also uniformly distributed) according to the census, support each 10 horses, 1·4 mules and asses, 21 draught and 34 other cattle, 499 woolled and 50 other sheep, 44 Angora, and 109 other goats, 6 pigs, 7 dogs, and an ostrich, with a population of 36 persons.

But such a standard is, of course, widely departed from. Thus there are to the square mile in the Cape division 6·15 horses, in Aliwal North 5·70, in Wodehouse and King William's Town 5·52; but in Namaqualand only ·18, Calvinia ·14, and Fraserburg ·22. Of draught cattle the density rises to 24·36 to the square mile in Peddie, 23·33 in Stockenstrom, 25·99 in King William's Town; but sinks to ·17 in Calvinia, and ·18 in Fraserburg. The largest number of other cattle to the square mile is in

Peddie 51·92, and King William's Town 52·38. Of woolled sheep there are to the square mile in Caledon 170·34, Mossel Bay 103·80, Stockenstrom 264·52, Fort Beaufort 202·66, King William's Town 250·69. The greatest density of angora goats is 36·46 to the square mile in Stockenstrom, 39·76 in Bedford, and 39·53 in Graaff-Reinet.

Relating to the coloured population, we find that the area given as cultivated by "coloured persons" was 73,014 morgen, or nearly one-fourth of the whole. The largest proportions of this area are found in the districts of Malmesbury, Namaqualand, George, Peddie, Fort Beaufort and Stockenstrom, Wodehouse, Queen's Town, King William's Town, and East London. Their chief produce was maize and millet, in amount 806,374 bushels, about five-sevenths of the whole quantity produced. Of aloes, the coloured gathered 57,832 lbs., and they had grown 205,039 lbs. of tobacco. The quantity of wool produced by the coloured was 2,249,006 lbs. Of 9,179 ploughs (one-third of the total in the Colony) belonging to coloured people, 6,345 were in the Eastern Province, in which the total number was 8,474.

The following numbers shew the principal stock in possession of coloured people :—

Horses	45,623
Draught Cattle	122,210
Other Cattle	282,822
Woolled Sheep	1,109,346
Angora Goats	78,595
Other Goats	535,730

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

GRAIN CROPS, WINE, &c.

EVERY part of the colony seems adapted for the growing of grain crops, the only impediments being want of moisture during some seasons in certain localities, the effect of blight in others, and the distance, difficulty, and expense of transport to a market. These drawbacks, however, seldom prevail over the whole country at the same time; and it is noticeable that although one part may suffer in diminished or blighted crops, other places yield an abundant harvest. When favourable seasons prevail everywhere, the production is more than enough for home consumption;* and yet when droughts set in, supplies have to be obtained from South Australia, Chili, or California.

The portions most favourably situated for the

* In the years 1871-2, about 30,000 muids (90,000 bushels) of Cape wheat were sent to the London market. It consisted almost solely of two descriptions—viz., "Baard" and "du Toit's," and was pronounced by the London brokers and millers to be equal in quality to the finest Dantzic. The prices realised by it were quite as high as those ruling for the latter description. Since then repeated applications have been made for more, the wheat being used by biscuit-bakers for their finest quality of biscuits.

production of wheat are those regularly visited by copious rains, and where artificial irrigation is unnecessary. The coast districts, especially those contiguous to Cape Town, possess this advantage, and form the principal granary. In these localities, wheat and oats return from 15 to 30 fold, according to the season; barley, from 50 to 100 fold; and rye, from 20 to 40 fold. All kinds of grain are sown thin; otherwise, owing to their quick growth under an African sun, if sown too full they are liable to run to straw. The yield of wheat per acre, under good cultivation and free from rust, may be taken at an average of 15 bushels to the acre—*i.e.*, at the rate of 10 to the acre at 15-fold, and 20 to the acre at 30-fold. Oats and rye give about the same; but barley generally yields, on new land, in a good season, 50 bushels the acre. The weight of wheat, per three bushel sack, is from 205 lb. to 208 lb.

A decided improvement has taken place in the mode of cultivation. The Howard plough and harrow are extensively used on stiff lands, and the Swedish plough along the sea board and on sandy fields. Manure is more valued and judiciously applied. The old-fashioned way of harvesting is also being superseded. The "tramp floor," where the grain used to be trodden out by horses, is giving place to the steam-thrashing-machine, which itinerates about the districts, doing all the thrashing at the rate of 1s. a muid, the farmer supplying fuel and labour. The oat and barley crops are in many cases mowed down by the cradle scythe, in preference to the sickle.

Reaping machines, however, are generally coming into use, effecting a great saving in labour.

The Clanwilliam, Tulbagh, and Worcester divisions, and the south-east coast districts, from Caledon up to George, also yield considerable grain crops in average seasons; while over the Karoo, with irrigation, astonishing returns—from a hundred fold upwards, may be obtained.

In the East, the most extensive arable lands are those in the Zuurveld districts of Lower Albany and Oliphant's Hoek, and next to them in the Queenstown, Aliwal North and other border districts. In these upper districts wheat is usually sown after the turn of the winter, in June or July; and on the coast lands as late as September. Since the country was first settled this grain has been more or less liable to be damaged by "rust," and only the hardy, or flinty kinds, are sown with any chance of a crop. The return in Lower Albany, when not so affected, is from 30 to 35 bags for one sown, if sown early —about ten acres being covered with a three-bushel sack (or muid) of seed. Barley, or bere, returns from 10 to 15 bushels per acre on an average, but, on well-cultivated clean land, has given as much as 20 bushels per acre. Oats are largely grown for forage, when nearly or quite ripe being cut and made into sheaves—forming the staple horse food of the country. The best variety sown is the white side, or Tartar oat, which, though occasionally slightly affected, withstands the rust better than any other sort which has been tried. The average yield of oat hay is from 2,000 lbs. to 3,000 lbs. per acre, but

as much as 6,000 lbs. has been reaped off an acre. The return of grain is from 35 to 49 per cent. A bag of good side oats (3 bushels) usually weighs 160 lbs; but since rust has commenced its ravages, the average is not more than 130 lb. Wheat averages, in full three bushel sacks, as high as 230 lbs. Barley (5-rowed), if thrashed soon after being reaped, 180 lbs. to 200 lbs. per sack; and English, or 2-rowed barley, 210 lbs. to 220 lbs. The divisions of Albany and Bathurst and Alexandria grow a great deal more wheat now than formerly, and some of it is of very excellent quality.

Indian corn or maize, known under the name of "mealies," is grown all over the country, and yields most abundant crops of good food, both for man and beast. Along the frontier especially it is largely cultivated. This grain possesses the advantage of coming to perfection in a shorter time than most other cereals. It requires but little care in cultivation, and is not affected by rust, or any other disease of any importance. It grows almost on any soil; but where severe frost prevails it has to be sown early enough to be ripe before being touched by it.

Kafir-corn, or millet, is chiefly raised by the natives, being largely used by them, either boiled for food or malted as beer.

Potatoes, and all kinds of European garden vegetables and pot-herbs, do well, and can be grown all the year round. Sweet potatoes, pumpkins and melons are produced and supplied in wagon loads. Beet is raised extensively, and from some trials that have been made to test

the quality of sugar it contained, it is found equal in this respect to any samples of the plant grown in France, Belgium, or elsewhere. The kindred plant, mangel wurzel, when tried, has likewise proved a satisfactory crop, as have also Swede turnips in the Queen's Town district. Comparatively little artificial food for stock has as yet been attempted to be produced; but there is every reason to believe it would pay well, and the increase of both milk and beef would amply compensate for the trouble of cultivating and storing.

The culture of the vine has been followed at the Cape for upwards of two centuries. It was originally introduced by the Dutch in the time of Van Riebeek, who, in his "Journal" (1662), reports to his successor the "flourishing state of the vineyards." The French Protestant refugées who arrived in 1685 gave an impetus to this cultivation; and by 1710 the increase was so great that, according to a return furnished by the Governor of the Colony, Louis Van Assenburg, to the Governor-General of Netherlands India, Johan Van Hoorn, the vines planted amounted to 2,729,300, and the expected produce, although in a bad season, was 1,190 leggers. The wines were then shipped by the company to Java, and even to Europe.

After the Cession of the colony to England, great inducements were held out to the colonists to develope this trade, the "most constant support and patronage on the part of Government" being assured by proclamation, as well as premiums offered to those who planted most

extensively. Such encouragement, together with the advantage of differential duties then in force enabled Colonial wines to compete in England with importations from the nearer Continental countries, and for a time wine-growing was a most lucrative industry. This protection, however, was not long afterwards partially withdrawn, entailing severe loss upon many who had embarked all their means in the enterprise. And later, in January, 1860, when the commercial treaty with France was entered into, establishing the alcoholic scale of duty, which is still maintained, the Cape was actually placed at a disadvantage as compared with the Continental growers.

The bulk of the wines produced here, like those of Australia, when prepared to arrive home in good condition, require a greater spirit strength than 26° (the quantity produced by natural fermentation), in consequence of the warm latitudes they have to pass on the voyage to England. The strength of 26° is the limit of the 1s. duty, and everything beyond is subject to 2s. 6d. per gallon, which therefore acts upon Colonial wines in a prohibitory manner. The Cape growers have repeatedly made representations to the Home Government on this subject, requesting that, in the event of a revision of the Imperial tariff wines, not exceeding 33 degrees of alcoholic strength should be imported at the lower rate of duty ; but hitherto their appeals have been ineffectual, as the Imperial Treasury officers advise that such an alteration would interfere with the home spirit tax. Meanwhile,

the operation of the existing tariff has been to diminish the annual export of our wines from 1,000,000 gallons, valued at £153,000, in 1859, to 60,000 gallons, valued at £13,730, in 1876.

Cape wines, unfortunately, have got a bad name in England. They were never fairly brought into general consumption there, but used for supplementing and mixing purposes, when European wines were scarce and dear. This was especially the case between 1854 and 1859, when the Continental vintages were short, owing to the ravages of the vine disease ; and the prices then obtainable led to a most objectionable practice, by some exporters, of shipping young and raw liquids under the name of wine, which justified general abhorrence. Yet, as is well known, there are Cape wines, such as the famed Constantias, Paarl Pontacs and Hocks, Drakenstein Lachryma Christi, and Worcester and Montagu Sherries, which, when genuine and of good quality, are as excellent as can be produced in any wine-growing country. It is this class of wines that, notwithstanding the excessive rate of duty, are always in demand by old visitors to the Colony and connoisseurs settled in Europe.

The famous Constantia vineyards—whose produce still maintains a high reputation for excellence—have a history dating backwards to the year 1685. The traditional story is that at that time Governor Simon Van der Stell, who devoted much attention to agriculture, resolved to find out the soil most suitable to the cultivation of the Vine, and had specimens from

Rondebosch, Boscheuvel, Tygerberg, and Constantia forwarded to Holland, to undergo analysis and comparison with the soils of France and the Rhine. The result was so decidedly in favour of the soil from Constantia, that he availed himself of the presence of the Dutch Company's Commissioner, Baron Van Rheede Van Drakenstein (after whom the district of Drakenstein has derived its name), to obtain a formal grant of lands, comprising the whole of what are now known as the estates of Great and Little Constantia, Witteboom, Bergvleit, and other properties. He spared no trouble to procure vines of the choicest qualities, which he planted, and the first vintage, from the blue muscadel, or Catalonia grape as it was called, established the character of Constantia wines, which soon obtained great repute abroad.

Van der Stell, the elder, in 1699, handed over the cares of Government to his son, and retired to Constantia to enjoy his *otium cum dignitate* until his death. But the political troubles which arose in 1700, from the arbitrary system of taxation and other restrictions put upon the colonists, led to the younger Van der Stell's recall, and the issue of an order from Holland in October, 1706, that the lands of both father and son should be disposed of, and that civil functionaries should in future be disqualified from carrying on farming operations. This circumstance led to the sale of the Constantia estate in 1715,—the property on which Van der Stell had planted his vineyards and erected a princely mansion, retaining the original title

deeds and name of Great Constantia, now in possession of H. Cloete, Esq.

The early proprietors of the place had in common with the other colonists of those days, to submit to the tithes and restrictions imposed by the Dutch East India Company, who rigidly required an annual quantity of wine to be delivered, at what they considered "a reasonable price," which they forwarded to their public sales at Amsterdam, from whence every court on the Continent was supplied. A similar practice was continued even after the cession of the Colony to England—the Government laying claim to what was termed the rights and privileges of the old Company, and a functionary known as the "Fiscal," and some members of the Court of Justice, used yearly to repair to Constantia to taste and select the wines, some of which, it is said, were sent away as presents, "to soften the temper of Ministers, and to sweeten the lips of Royalty itself." After 1826, the system was discontinued.

About that time, an intelligent and enterprising colonist, Mr. Sebastian Van Reenen, obtained possession of the property Witteboom, adjoining Constantia; and convinced by reflection that the boundary which divided the two estates had not altered the nature of the soil or the climate, he planted extensive vineyards, which have been continued in the family, and are now as well known as the original Constantia.

These magnificent estates (Cloete's and Van Reenen's, are a prominent attraction to passen-

gers spending a few days at Cape Town. Situate about twelve miles from the city, and three or four from the Wynberg railway terminus, they are easily accessible, and in the course of each year are visited by many persons from every quarter of the globe, who all receive a courteous and hospitable welcome.

By most of the wine-growers a quantity of raisins are annually produced. They are chiefly made in the districts beyond the first range of mountains—Worcester, Robertson, and Montagu,—the vintage seasons there being hot and dry. The large fleshy haanepoot grape is generally used for manufacture—being prepared either by cutting the stalk of the bunches half through when nearly ripe, and leaving them suspended on the vine till the watery part is evaporated and the sun dries and candies them; or, when fully ripe, they are gathered in baskets, and dipped in a lye prepared from the "ghanna" ash (common to the country), and then laid out in single bunches, on cane mats, or stones, to dry in the sun. Raisin-making does not require the large capital in fustage and cellars necessary to wine making, and if care is taken to use the right kind of grape, and to produce the best qualities, remunerative prices are readily procurable. The Malaga and stoneless Sultana grape should be more extensively cultivated.

The preparation of other dried fruits also gives occupation to those farmers who have extensive orchards. Apricots, peaches, pears, figs, plums, apples, walnuts, almonds—indeed every kind of fruit is available in any quantity for this purpose.

The "preserves" of the Cape—gooseberry, nartje, orange, lime, guava, quince, melon, citron, peach, fig, apricot, and other varieties—surpass those of English manufacture.

Tobacco is cultivated in many of the Western coast districts, as well as by the natives in Kafirland. There is a considerable home consumption of the article by ordinary smokers; but the general demand is for sheep washing purposes.

Cotton-growing has been tried with partial success in the Eastern coast divisions of Albany, Peddie, and East London, the average yield of crops raised being about 240 lbs. of clean or ginned cotton per acre.

Coffee trees bear well in the neighbourhood of the Kowie and the Buffalo Rivers. There are also some tea-plants which it is said stand the winds and the frosts better than the coffee.

The cultivation of linseed, chicory, olives, and numerous other products has also been proved practicable; indeed, there are numbers of undeveloped products and resources in the Colony, offering a profitable field to persons competent to enter upon them although at present the ordinary occupations are sufficiently remunerative to most people without requiring the effort to try new openings.

PASTORAL RESOURCES.

SHEEP and wool form the chief pastoral productions of the Colony, affording occupation to the greater part of its inhabitants, and contributing the principal amount to its exports.

The origin of this industry dates back to 1795, when a Colonel Gordon, who was in the Dutch service, received some thoroughbred rams from Spain, which were distributed among some of the farmers, and crossed with the native hairy sheep, producing a half breed carrying a good fleece. But the old colonists were at first very slow to appréciate the wool-bearing animals. They preferred the fat-tailed Africander sheep, which appeared to them more useful for purposes of domestic economy—the carcase supplying the heaviest and best mutton, the fat tail making an excellent substitute for lard and butter, and the skin being readily convertible into "velbroeken," and other home-made garments.

In 1812 two gentlemen (Messrs. J. F. Reitz and M. van Breda, residing in the Caledon district) introduced a few Saxony rams and ewes, and commenced on a small scale that system of sheep farming which ever since has proved one of the principal sources of wealth to the Colony.

At a later period, flocks of pure-bred sheep, similar to Lord Western's stock, were imported by Governor Lord Charles Somerset, and kept at the Government farm at Groote Post, near Cape Town, and at the Boschberg, a Commissariat establishment on the frontier, now the town of Somerset East. Several others were introduced by the English settlers of 1820; and once the industry was fairly set in motion, a spirit of rivalry amongst those engaged in it was soon evoked. Even in the remote inland districts, the Boers recognised the advantage of the woolled sheep, and year after year diminished the number of their native breed and took to the more valuable merinos. And now for twenty or thirty years past, Cape sheep farmers have shewn their appreciation of pure blood by importing the best specimens of the Merino breed—the Rambouillet being one of the chief favourites. In this manner by judicious breeding and selection several fine flocks have been established and the general average quality of the Cape wools greatly improved.

The large increase in the quantity produced and exported from the Colony, may be seen from the following returns which shew what it was in 1850, 1860, 1870, and in each of the last seven years. When it is remembered that in 1830, the total shipment was only 33,000 lbs, the production has certainly multiplied with wonderful rapidity:—

	lbs.	value—£.
1850	5,912,927	285,610
1860	23,219,689	1,448,629

	lbs.	value—£.
1870	37,283,291	1,669,518
1871	46,279,639	2,191,233
1872	48,822,562	3,275,150
1873	40,393,746	2,710,481
1874	42,620,481	2,948,571
1875	40,339,674	2,855,899
1876	34,861,339	2,278,942
1877	36,020,571	2,232,755

The retrogression in quantity and value in the two last years is partly owing to the loss of stock from severe droughts, partly to the large proportion of scoured wool now shipped, by which the weight has been proportionately diminished, and partly to change of market. The season of 1872, it will be seen, was an unprecedently favourable one for this staple, which then reached the highest maximum yet attained, both in quantity and value exported.

The largest flock masters are in the central districts, where the dry climate and aromatic and saline herbage of the Karoo plains are very favourable for sheep. In Beaufort West, one or two proprietors own flocks of from 20,000 to 30,000, besides other stock. The flocks generally, however, range from 15,000 down to 1,500. Some of the farms there measure as much as 25,000 morgen, but their capabilities for pasture vary greatly. Taking seasons of drought into account, the best land does not carry more than one sheep to a morgen, and there are parts (such as the West Gouph), where the estimate is three to five morgen to one sheep.

In the grassy eastern districts of Somerset, Bedford and Fort Beaufort, the pasture carries as much as two sheep to a morgen all the year through, but in times of drought, which periodically occur, the veld there withers rapidly and stock has to be reduced or removed elsewhere for food. Some of the frontier farmers, therefore, adopt the plan of occupying two farms—one suitable to the summer, and another for the winter. This, when it can be carried out, is obviously of considerable advantage. While the lands at the ordinary level may be scorched and dried up, there is usually some rain, and consequently grass, on the mountain ranges, which constitute the summer farms.

Our foremost colonial farmers carry on their operations on the most modern and improved principles. Notably in Caledon, Swellendam, Beaufort West, Graaff-Reinet, Richmond, Middelburg, Cradock, Somerset and Bedford, there are estates upon which the homesteads are large substantial premises, surrounded by trees, and cultivated grounds, shewing every evidence of enterprise and energy. There are, washing pools, dipping tanks, drafting pens, and roomy clean sheds, where the wool is shorn and sorted according to its several qualities or descriptions. At suitable places throughout the sheep-runs, "dams," or reservoirs, have been constructed, where the flocks are watered without having any distance to travel, and at each of them there are small houses or stations where the superintendents or stockmen with their herds live for weeks together, visiting the head station

only at intervals, as occasion may require. These superintendents in many cases are young men of good family, who thus acquire a practical knowledge of pastoral pursuits, and in a few years are qualified to take the charge of other farms, or lease lands on their own account.

Throughout the country generally, however, the old and still most common practice of farming is to graze the flocks by day, under the care of a native herd, who guides their depasturing over the part of the farm allotted to the special flock under his charge, and at evening time drives them home to the "kraal," where they are kept all night. The kraal, or fold, is made of various materials, the commonest fences being a high, thick hedge of thorny bushes, or an enclosure built with blocks cut out of the accumulated dung and *debris* of the old kraal. Stone walls are erected in many places where stones are handy, and in some of the more exposed situations, where the farmer has the enterprise and the ability, the stone walls are converted into sheds.

The coming home of the flocks at night is a pretty sight, and gives the full opportunity to the owners to count them, look to their health, and other matters of management, as well as to check depredations, both human and brute. But whatever may have been, or is still, the necessity of the case, it is now acknowledged that this kraaling has an injurious effect both on the farm and the flocks, injuring the wool and the health of the sheep, wearing out the pasture by the constant treading of the ever-moving animals,

and collecting the manure and strength of the land into great useless heaps many feet deep.

The recent decrease of stock and the deterioration of some of the farms on the frontier which used to carry sheep well, led the Government, in 1876, to appoint a Commission, together with the Colonial Veterinary Surgeon (Professor Brandford), to enquire into the matter. In their report they attribute the evils complained of to these three prominent causes—overstocking, whereby the best and most nutritious food is trampled and eaten down without any opportunity of propagating itself; the wearing out of the veld by the sheep travelling to and from the kraals morning and night; and the condition of the kraals—chiefly the manure accumulations of years—favouring the development of various kinds of parasites. The remedies proposed are, fencing in and subdividing the farms; allowing portions yearly to seed down and recover; sowing grasses and karoo plants; and making provision for times of drought by preserving the veld for any such emergency. The Commission says:—"The time has passed, or is rapidly passing, when sheep-farming can be carried on profitably under the old system. Besides this, there are the general advantages of fencing experienced in other colonies, such as the cheapening the working of sheep-runs, the improved condition of the sheep by avoiding the driving of them in the heat, and, when they are full of water and food, the prevention of contagion from scab and other contagious diseases, the spread of parasites by stray sheep going over a clean run,

the increased yield of wool, the saving of tramping out the grass by driving to and fro, the being able to let the grasses seed and multiply by sparing annually parts of the run, the depositing of the excrement of the stock on the land as nature meant it to be, instead of heaping it up in kraals, where it breeds innumerable flies, and the making it practicable to scatter grass and Karroo seeds during rains, with a fair prospect of their becoming permanent, by keeping the stock off, which is impracticable under the kraaling and herding system."

If these recommendations and suggestions are adopted and acted upon, there is no doubt the capabilities of the pasture will be increased, the soil enriched, and a better return secured for capital and labour.

Since the discovery of the Diamond Fields the prices of all kinds of sheep have greatly increased. Previously one could buy good "hamels" (wethers) for 8s. 6d. each; they are now, if fat, worth fully double as much, and well-bred stock ewes about the same price, or ordinary ones, about 10s. or 15s. each. Of course such prices make the increase, or surplus, which is one of the sources of profit on sheep farming, a very considerable item.

The average clip of wool in the twelve months from the very best flocks in good seasons is about eight lbs. of grease wool per sheep; if this wool fetches 8d., which some of it does, we have the annual return per head of 5s. 4d. But then, as already stated, the increase is also a large item of profit in good years. A ewe flock is supposed to

raise 75 per cent. of its lambs, so that, if there is an equal number of ewes and wethers in a flock, we may predicate its doubling itself in four years.

We are here speaking of a good well-bred flock, with good management, in a fair season. Some flocks there are that do not return 5 bls. of wool, and the wool scarcely fetches over 5d. per lb., and the increase is nothing at all —either on account of bad management, or being on a poor, worked-out farm. In times of severe drought the best flocks and the best farms cannot yield, of course, but a comparatively poor return.

Very many of our sheep farmers have flocks of goats—in most cases the common goat of the country, but often mixed with various grades of Angora blood. These original goats are a very hardy race of animals, and live where sheep cannot, and supply meat which, though not equal to Southdown wether mutton, is quite passable, and very useful on a farm. They breed and increase very fast, having as many as five kids at a birth, and seldom less than two, and are, altogether, a useful animal, yielding a famous and valuable skin.*

Angoras are comparatively a recent introduction. The first were brought to the Cape by a Colonel Henderson in 1836, and the stock

* The Cape goat skin is unequalled for the manufacture of superior leathers. Between 300,000 and 400,000 of these are sold annually in the London market, where they have realised as high as 95s. the dozen. They are tanned in bark for the manufacture of black leather, and in shumac for that of coloured leather, called morocco.—*Vide* "Robinson's Report on Vienna Exhibition, 1873."

obtained from them found its way to Caledon, Swellendam, Graaff-Reinet, and Richmond. After this Messrs. Mosenthal Brothers, who appreciated the value and importance of a fleece-bearing goat as next to a wool-bearing sheep, tried to obtain some pure-bred animals from Angora, and, in 1856, succeeded in doing so. About the same time Dr. White obtained some fine stock, through Sir Titus Salt, and since then importations have been effected by other private individuals and mercantile firms. Several of the larger breeders are fully aware of the value of pure blood, and are raising flocks of true and uncrossed animals.

The advantage of breeding Angoras is that they scarcely interfere with the pasture of the sheep flocks, and will often live on herbage the latter discard; whilst the fleece, if improved, commands a high price, and is an important addition to the exportable products of the country. Although mohair only began to figure on our exports in 1862, the quantity then being 1,036 lbs., in 1871 it increased to 536,292 lbs., valued at £43,000, it advanced in 1875 to 1,147,453 lbs., valued at £133,180; and in 1877 it amounted to 1,433,774 lbs. of the declared value of £116,382.

Another new branch of farming which has now become a very important one, is the domestication and breeding of Ostriches. One of the first to try it in the colony was the late Mr. Kinnear, of Beaufort West. He commenced about 1860, and his success in breeding and rearing these birds was such as to induce many persons, far

and wide, to enter upon what has since proved to be a very interesting and highly remunerative pursuit. On an eight-acre garden plot, attached to his residence in the town of Beaufort West, he had a flock of thirty birds, and several broods of young ones. A portion of the eight acres was divided by hedges into paddocks, sown with lucerne; the remainder was formed into kraals, or small enclosures, where the birds were pairing, the male and female sitting alternately on the nests in carrying on the natural process of incubation. Adjoining the spot there were one or two outhouses, and sheds, where the young birds were sheltered in cold weather, and where the old ones were penned up at the time of feather-gathering, to be relieved of their valuable plumage. Mr. Kinnear's observations on the management and habits of the birds were communicated to us at that time in the following memorandum:—

"The number of birds that can be kept on a given area of pasture depends entirely on its quality. A full-grown ostrich will consume 20 lbs. of chopped lucerne, a sheep 12 lbs., and a horse of 14 hands 70 lbs. The birds do not like grass, or green forage; they prefer cabbage leaves, fruit, grain, &c., but for permanent food there is nothing equal to lucerne, or clover.

"As far as my experience has gone, they do not lay in general until they are 4 years old or upwards; a very few lay at 3, more at 4, and some not till 5. Out of 6 cocks I had, but one was capable of pairing at 3 years old, four at 4 years, and one not until 5.

"In a wild state, there are sometimes as many as five hens to one cock. I think there should always be two; but then there should be an incubator for the surplus eggs, which cannot be covered. If, however, there are equal numbers of cocks and hens, I separate them into pairs. The cock should not, I think, be separated from any of the hens after pairing. The birds for the most part begin to lay about the beginning of August, and continue for about six weeks, when they commence hatching. In about a month or six weeks after they have done hatching (at least if the young birds have been removed) they begin to lay again, and continue a month or five weeks. At the first laying they lay from 15 to 20 eggs, and at the second from 12 to 16.

"Incubation lasts from six to seven weeks from the time the bird begins to sit. I take the young ones away when they are so strong that they leave the nest, which is in a day or two. Some persons leave them with the hen, and often give several broods to one hen, in which case they are driven into a shed at night, or during wet weather, as they are very sensible to cold or wet. The hen with the chicks is kept apart from the others. The chicks get for food chopped lucerne, cut as young as possible, as they do not like the stalks, and some grains of wheat may be scattered about for them to pick up, and also maize, as they get older. Clover would do as well as lucerne, and perhaps vetches. I also give them sand, earth, and crushed quartz and bones, and as much water as they please. They like to bathe, and roll in the dust. If taken

away from the hen, they should be kept warm, especially at night."

The artificial incubation of ostrich eggs occupied the attention of many who followed Mr. Kinnear's example in domesticating the birds. Dr. Atherstone, of Graham's Town, was one of the first to suggest the process, and his suggestion was taken up by Mr. A. Douglas, of Hilton, near Graham's Town, who afterwards patented an improved apparatus made by himself. Similar appliances, with modifications, by Dr. Lawrence, of George, and others, are now in use all over the country. Mr. Douglas's success has, however, been as notable as any. From six breeding birds—four hens and two cocks—he reared a progeny of 130 in one season.

In some parts of the Colony, where the farmers have considerable flocks, the birds are depastured and driven something like sheep; but generally they are enclosed in camps, within fences or rough stone walls. When paired and breeding, they are allotted small paddocks, fenced with wire and bush, as the male birds at such a time are vicious and dangerous to approach. The eggs, which are laid in a hole slightly scooped in the ground, are collected and taken away, to be placed in the incubator, one or two being left, or artificial ones placed in their stead, till, perhaps at the end of the season, one or both hens are allowed to sit. In this way the birds, if kept in good condition, continue to lay for a longer time, and there is no injury to their feathers from sitting.

The artificial hatching has proved quite a success. One of the ordinary incubators in use

consists of a wooden box about three feet square, opened from above, and capable of containing 25 eggs. It rests upon a copper or zinc pan or cistern, three inches deep, and equal to the size of the box. This is filled with hot water, and has four or five openings through which the vapour ascends into the box. The warm temperature of the water is maintained by a paraffin lamp, kept burning underneath the pan; but in some cases this has been found objectionable, as the fumes of the lamp affect the young chicks as they leave the egg, and it is an improvement to have the lamp burning in an adjoining apartment,—an extension of the cistern or pan about a foot wide, being carried through the partition, or wall, and the lamp placed under it. The heat can be regulated as necessary, thermometers being constantly in use. The temperature of the box where the eggs are placed is 102° Fahr. when they are first put in; after two weeks it is gradually reduced to 100°, and in two weeks more to 89°. The period of incubation is 42 days. The eggs are turned and aired, by opening the box and blanket once or twice a day. A fortnight before the expiry of the time, they are held up against the light to examine their condition, and a week after are slightly, but carefully, punctured near the top with a sharp pointed steel, to enable any of the chicks in weak condition the more readily to break the shell. When hatched they are turned out, kept warm, and fed with cut lucerne, and allowed to run about their enclosures like ordinary fowls.

The large birds are fed on grain of all sorts—5 lbs. of food per day keeping them in excellent condition, varied with lucerne, bones, crushed granite, and shells from the neighbouring beach. The younger birds, not old enough to breed, run in troops of forty or fifty together, and make up a comical and very docile lot of domestic fowls. They feed on grass and other herbage, and readily eat indian corn.

The feathers, of course, are the produce for which the birds are bred; and the steadily-increasing export of this article—"ostrich feathers"—from the Cape, during the last six years, is shewn by the following returns:—

Year.	lbs.	Value.
1872	26,695	£158,024
1873	31,581	159,677
1874	36,829	205,640
1875	49,569	304,933
1876	59,941	341,020
1877	65,496	393,406

The horned cattle of the Colony include the descendants of the native species which the Hottentots possessed in Van Riebeek's time, crossed with the Dutch breed introduced by the early colonists. To this have been added contributions from nearly every breed known in England and Holland. Most of the pasturage along the coast and in the eastern and northern districts is best adapted for this stock. In the Zuurveld and Kaffraria many of the farmers are not only cattle breeders but "Kurveyors," (trans-

port riders), and have always some wagons on the road. A "span" or team consists of 16 oxen, so that a few wagons take a hundred head counting supernumaries. Some men we know have thus employed more than 500 oxen. The "Kurveyors" in the eastern divisions who were provided with oxen of their own breeding, and engaged pretty largely in the traffic to the Diamond Fields and other parts of the Colony, have made very handsome profits and accumulated pretty good sums of money of late years. The number of cattle in the Colony in 1865 was 625,514; and in 1875 it had increased to 1,111,713.

Cape horse are celebrated for their hardy and enduring qualities. The original stock came from South America; they were afterwards improved by pure Arabs, who gave them their characteristic of good constitution and indomitable pluck; and they have since had a large infusion of English thoroughbred blood. Thirty years ago there were a considerable number of breeding establishments; but the horse sickness,* which spread over the Colony in an epidemic form in 1853-4, sweeping away no less than 70,000, induced many of the breeders to relinquish their occupation and take to sheep and other stock. Notwithstanding this, the demand for horses at the

* It is now well understood that this sickness is produced by exposure to night air in a season of malaria during the summer and autumn months; and keeping horses in closed stables from sundown and till the dew is off the grass next morning, has been found to be a preventative. High and dry situations, such as the mountain plateaux, are comparatively free from it.

time of the Indian Mutiny in 1858-9, served to shew the capabilities of the colony. 5,600 horses and 100 mules were shipped from the Cape by the Indian remount agents,—the average cost of each horse sent, including shipping and all charges, which were naturally high at a time of such emergency, being about £65. More recently the increased demand for good horses has been such as to encourage several of our wealthy farmers in the west and midlands to resume breeding. Thoroughbred colts, one to three year olds, obtain good prices. Most of them are secured by up-country buyers, and in a little time afterwards change hands for double and treble the amount in the Eastern and Northern districts and the Free State.

LAND AND ITS OCCUPATION.

THE value of a farm in the Colony depends much upon the quality of its herbage, the strength and permanency of its fountains, the nature of the improvements that have been made upon it in the form of dams, buildings, homestead, &c., as well as its extent of arable land and proximity to a market. The best farms are worth at present from 20s. to 30s. a morgen, and others range from that price down to 10s. per morgen, while inferior spots may be had as low as 1s. or 1s. 6d. per morgen.* In some districts, however, there are first-class farms combining, "horn, corn, wool, and wine," which sometimes sell as high as £3 per morgen.

Although the greater portion of the country is settled, and become the property of private individuals, there is a large extent of wild waste land belonging to the Crown, which is from time time offered for lease or sale—by public auction. The bulk of these lands now available for leasing lies along the northern border in the divisions of Calvinia, Fraserburg, Carnarvon and Victoria West. Some of the lands occasionally adjoin private properties and are hired at comparatively

* 600 square roods=1 morgen=2·11654 Imperial acres.

high rates from the convenience they afford of additional grazing or change of pasture.

The Land Law of the Colony now in force is contained in the Act No. 2 of 1860, which provides for the *sale* of all Government lands on perpetual quitrent* by public auction, excepting grants made for public purposes with the concurrence of the Legislature. A subsequent enactment (Act 19 of 1864) authorises lands to be *leased* by public auction for periods of from two to twenty-one years. And another (Act 5 of 1870) gives the lessees permission with the consent of Government at any time during the continuation of their twenty-one years' leases to *purchase* the land at a sum not less than the rent capitalised at six per cent., and a quitrent of £1 per cent.

For the encouragement of small agriculturists and other immigrants from Europe, a further Act was passed (No. 10 of 1877) making provision for the disposal of agricultural areas in allotments of not more than 500 acres; the terms, for lease, being an annual rental of one shilling per acre; and of absolute purchase, the payment of ten years' annual rent, and the expenses of survey and title. The holder of the ground must erect on his allotment a dwelling house of not less value than £20, within the first two years of his lease, and every year afterwards must bring under cultivation at least one acre of every ten acres leased.

* There are three modes of land tenure common to the Colony, viz.—freehold, loan, and quitrent—the latter entailing the annual payment of a small sum, dependent upon the value and circumstances of the land.

To acquire land under the Act of 1860, the first step is to make application for its purchase to the Colonial Secretary, or to the Divisional Council of the district in which it is situate, setting forth as far as practicable the position, boundaries, and extent of the land referred to. This application is referred to the Surveyor-General and also to the Divisional Council as a local land board, who may make an inspection, and report as to any circumstances connected with it, and give instructions as to survey, diagram, &c., being prepared, the amount of cost of which the applicant may be called upon at once to deposit. These reports being favourable, the Surveyor-General takes steps for fixing a day for the sale of the land, which, after being duly advertised, is held by public auction at the office of the civil commissioner of the division. It is usual to name an upset price which will cover at least the expenses of inspection, survey, erection of beacons, and title-deed, and then it is disposed of to the highest bidder.

Parties wishing to secure small pieces of Government land adjacent to their own properties, and within the watershed, may make application for the same, and according to the recommendation of the Divisional Council or the Surveyor-General, such ground may be so allotted or divided amongst two or more farms as may be deemed just and expedient, at a reasonable and equitable price to be fixed by the Council and approved of by the Governor not being less than the expenses of survey, deed, &c., and subject to a quitrent.

Some crown lands not yet surveyed are let by the civil commissioners from year to year by auction, without reserve, the various lots being roughly defined by description only, published in the *Government Gazette.*

Of late years, the Land Law of 1860 has not been so largely availed of as previously, excepting for the purpose of securing particular lots of land. The Act of 1870, which enables leaseholders to convert their leases into perpetual quitrent tenure, is now more generally taken advantage of by those who are desirous of making purchases of extensive tracts of the waste lands.

The mode of leasing is regulated by Act 19 of 1864 and Act 4 of 1867, which empower the Governor, with the advice of the Divisional Council, to offer lands for lease at public auction for a term not exceeding twenty-one years, to the bidder of the highest annual rent, not being less than an upset price fixed according to the average value of the land. The lands offered for lease, and the terms and conditions of lease, are advertised from time to time in the *Government Gazette,* and the local papers. The rent is to be paid annually, and payment for the first three years is to be secured by sufficient securities, but a payment of two years' rent in advance may be made in lieu of giving such securities. The lease is not transferable, nor to be sublet, either wholly or in part, without the previous sanction of the Government, but the latter has the right at any time of resuming the whole or part of the land so leased on giving compensation

to the lessee or remitting a portion of the rent, as may be agreed upon by arbitration. When a lease has not been sold for the upset price at auction, the Governor may dispose of it by tender or private contract, at any rent exceeding the highest offered at the sale, but only for a term of twelve months, when it has again to be put up to public sale, and if a higher bid than the private offer should then be made, and proper security given, Government is bound to grant the lease to such highest bidder.

The following is a comparative statement of the rates of rents, per 100 morgen, for leased lands, in some divisions during 1873, and in 1875 and 1876 :—

	RATE PER 100 MORGEN.		
	1873.	1875.	1876.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Beaufort West ...	... 45 6	18 1	17 6
Frazerburg ...	... 17 10	13 1	14 3
Richmond ...	... ...	27 3	30 1
Tulbagh	... ...	11 2	7 11
Uitenhage ...	... 49 4	46 4	36 9
Victoria West ...	... 23 3	31 7	8 4
Cradock	... 77 4	...	...
Humansdorp ...	... 12 3	...	...
Prins Albert ...	... 15 3	...	...
Queen's Town ...	... 81 2	...	...

The liberty of purchase of the property so leased is provided for by Act No. 5 of 1870, which gives to the Government the option of selling, but requires that the sum received shall not be less than that which capitalized or reckoned as a principal sum at six per cent. would produce a yearly rent equal to the rent reserved

on each lease; and in the event of the amount demanded by Government being greater than such principal sum, the matter may be referred to arbitration. The land is also subject to a perpetual quitrent of one per cent. on the purchase-money. As soon as the price is agreed upon, the amount may be paid at once, when title will be immediately granted, or the purchaser may pay it in three instalments, the first forthwith, and the other two at intervals of one year respectively; but until the entire sum is paid the terms of the subsisting lease continue.

The following figures, showing the average price per morgen of the Crown lands authorized to be sold in 1876 and 1877, in various districts, will inform the reader of the price at which these lands may be acquired in the Cape Colony:—

	Average price per morgen.					
	1876.			1877.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Albany	1	0	0		...	
Beaufort West	0	1	10	0	2	2½
Bedford		...		0	15	11
Calvinia	0	1	5		...	
Cape	0	8	0	0	15	1¼
Clanwilliam	0	1	0	0	1	11¾
Colesberg	0	3	2		...	
Cradock	0	10	0		...	
East London	3	12	0	3	3	9¾
Fraserburg ...	0	2	6	0	2	8¾
Graaff-Reinet	0	2	6	0	3	3¼
Hope Town	0	3	8	0	2	8
Humansdorp	0	8	8		...	
King William's Town ...	3	9	9	3	4	7
Malmesbury	0	3	4		...	
Prince Albert	0	2	1		...	

	Average price per morgen. 1876. £	s.	d.	1877. £	s.	d.
Queen's Town	0	9	8	0	11	4¾
Richmond	0	3	10		..	
Riversdale		...		0	4	1
Robertson	0	1	7	0	2	7
Stellenbosch		...		0	7	2¾
Stockenstrom		...		20	7	7
Swellendam	0	11	9		...	
Uitenhage	0	5	7		...	
Victoria West	0	3	0	0	2	2¼
Worcester	0	1	4	0	1	11¾

The progress of the occupation of the waste Crown land, under the twenty-one years' leasing Act of 1864, has been very marked. During 1866 the quantity of new land leased was 605,118 morgen; in 1867 it was 731,372 morgen; in 1868 it was 137,345 morgen; in 1869, 1,154,759 morgen; in 1871, 1,730,729 morgen; in 1872, 2,051,354 morgen; in 1873, 1,625,159 morgen; in 1874, 805,748 morgen; in 1875, 936,474 morgen; and in 1876, 343,883 morgen.

The Surveyor-General estimates that there was in existence on the 1st January, 1876, under Act No. 19, 1864, about 2,100 leases, of an extent of 7,400,000 morgen of land, with a total annual rent of £67,000. These leases include a slight proportion of sections or erven of ground of small extent; but the great majority is farms, agricultural and pastoral, varying much in extent according to the nature of the country. The average from the above figures gives about 3,500 morgen to each lot.

The total rents, £67,000, capitalised at six per cent. give the sum of £1,116,666, representing

the *minimum* value to Government under Act No. 5, 1870, of the lands held on lease, and which may be converted into quit-rent, and would then still yield a perpetual annual revenue of £11,166, or 1 per cent. on the purchase money.

REVENUE, COMMERCE, MINERAL AND INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

THE public revenue of the Cape Colony is chiefly made up of the amounts contributed by the customs duties, land sales, land rents and native hut-tax, transfer dues, stamps and licences, auction dues, bank note and succession duties, fees, postage, and telegraph and railway receipts. The actual revenue, exclusive of loans, for 1877 amounted to £1,403,200, of which the customs brought up the sum of £652,104.

The remarkable increase in the revenue receipts since 1870 is shewn in the following figures:—

In 1870 it	amounted	to	£668,240.
„ 1871	„	„	744,788
„ 1872	„	„	1,047,748
„ 1873	„	„	1,218,620
„ 1874	„	„	1,538,551
„ 1875	„	„	1,602,918
„ 1876	„	„	1,430,783
„ 1877	„	„	1,403,200

having thus more than doubled within a very brief period.

The public expenditure naturally enough advanced in nearly equal ratio, but left a surplus

in hand at the close of each year. In 1870, the total expenditure was £625,874, leaving a surplus of £35,518. In 1871 it was £636,961, with a surplus of £97,702. In 1872 it was £650,569, with a surplus of £389,318; in 1873 it was £917,813, with a surplus of £595,943; in 1874, it was £1,114,485, with a surplus of £403,523; and in 1875, it was £1,014,776, with a surplus of £588,142. The expenditure in these six years included £910,196 for public works from current funds—thus giving a total surplus in six years of £1,810,146, which included £320,234 6s. 8d. received from sinking and police funds.

The public Debt of the Colony on the 31st March 1877, including debentures issued for railway purchase and construction, amounted to £5,532,509, with an aggregate annual interest charge of £260,639. Of this sum, harbour loans, chargeable to the local funds of corporate bodies, amount to £464,350, with an annual charge of £25,228, leaving due by the general government—capital £5,068,159, annual charge £235,411. The proportion of this public debt to the population per head is £7 13s. 6d. which is small compared with other colonies—as for instance, Victoria, where it is £17 per head; New South Wales, where it is £18; and New Zealand, where it reaches £40 per head.

The earlier Loans were issued bearing 6 per cent. interest, but those of later years bear only 4½ per cent. £2,000,000 of the railway loan at 4½ per cent. has been raised above par.* Interest

*The remaining borrowing powers of the Government amount to about £2,286,200.

and redemption is payable in London through the Crown Agents for the Colonies. The Consolidated Public Debts Act of 1870 provides for the repayment of the principal by the application to annual drawings of a one per cent. cumulative sinking fund.

A retrospect of the commercial transactions of the Colony proves that the increase of revenue was coincident with the expansion of trade in every direction. The discovery of the diamond mines greatly contributed to this development and progress, but at the same time there was a marked advance in the yield of the staple productions of the country, giving assurance of continued and permanent prosperity.

The period of great mercantile activity may be said to date from 1870. Prior to that time, the average value of the colonial imports during the five years, 1866 to 1870, were £2,121,395 per annum. Subsequently, from 1870 to 1875, the average annual value was £4,678,725, thus shewing an increase of more than 120 per cent. The development of trade then reached its highest point for a time ; and the results of the transactions of 1876 and 1877 shew a slight decline, mainly owing to drought, stock diseases, and the alarmed and unsettled state of those of the frontier districts in proximity to the masses of the native tribes.

The following is the official return of the quantity or value of Imports for the year 1877 :

ARTICLES.	YEAR ENDING 31st Dec., 1877	
Agricultural Implements	... value £	23144
Ale and Beer	... gallons	951130
Apparel and Slops ...	... value £	234397
Coffee	... lb.	9449266
Corn, Grain, and Meal:		
Barley	... ,,	50160
Beans and Peas ...	... ,,	297927
Bran	... ,,	337478
Flour	... ,,	24729219
Maize	... ,,	3503536
Oats	... ,,	142038
Wheat	... ,,	15299456
Cotton Manufactures...	... value £	410825
Gunpowder	... lbs.	451862
Guns	... number	9585
Gun Barrels	... ,,	37
Haberdashery and Milinery ...	value £	441157
Hardware, Cutlery, and Iron-mongery	... ,,	294803
Iron—Bar, Bolt, and Rod	... ,,	21015
Leather Manufactures	... ,,	227812
Linen Manufactures ...	... ,,	47577
Rice	... lb.	10489325
Saddlery and Harness	... value £	44995
Silk Manufactures ...	... ,,	8635
Spirits (all sorts) ...	... gallons	193151
Sugar—Not Refined ...	... lbs.	20147410
Refined or Candy	... ,,	644173
Molasses ...	... ,,	220048
Tea	... ,,	738727
Tobacco—Unmanufactured ...	... ,,	177527
Manufactured	... ,,	397645
Cigars ...	... number	1037517 & 57002 lb.
Wine	... gallons	44854
Wood—Unmanufactured	... cub. feet	1087029
Woollen—Manufactured	... value £	163813
Total Value of above Articles		£3268207
Do. of other Articles		£1890141
Grand Total Value of Articles		£5158348

With regard to Exports, the average annual value of the colonial produce raised and shipped during the five years ended in 1870 was £2,331,979 ; and for the five years ended in 1875 £4,012,576, or an increase equal to more than 72 per cent.

The official returns of the Exports for the last year, ending 31st December 1877, are as follows:—

ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES.		DECLARED VALUE.
			£
Aloes	lb.	689427	7781
Argol	„	153455	4385
Copper Ore ...	tons	15244½	303645
Corn, Grain, and Meal, viz.:—			
Barley	lb.	82020	405
Beans and Peas ...	„	27100	160
Bran	„	458200	2024
Flour	„	240800	2206
Maize	„	9100	51
Oats	„	1043695	5148
Wheat	„	34596	279
Cotton	„	6000	150
Feathers (Ostrich)	„	65496	393406
Fish (Cured) ...	„	2324944	18975
Fruit (Dried) ...	„	771548	8161
Hair, viz., Angora	„	1433774	116382
Hides (Ox and Cow)	number	56548	32042
Horns	„	145913	3616
Horses	„	14	1430
Ivory	lb.	137660	50711
Precious Stones, viz.,			
Diamonds ...	number	83	330
Skins, viz., Goat ...	„	993558	119338
Sheep ...	„	1493000	130214
Spirits, viz., Brandy	gallons	3639	667

ARTICLES.		QUANTITIES.	DECLARED VALUE. £
Wine, viz., Constantia	gallons	3813	2126
Ordinary	„	76292	14223
Wool, Sheep's, viz.:—			
Fleece-washed	lb.	7077771	358696
Scoured ...	„	20065963	1572059
Grease ...	„	8876837	302000
Total Value of above Articles...		...	£3450910
Ditto of other Articles...		...	91784
Grand Total of Articles the produce of this Colony exported ...		...	£3542694

In considering these returns, it should be observed that while in previous years the value of diamonds exported figured for large sums, the valuation of the few declared at the Custom House in 1877 was no more than £330. According to the estimate of the Chambers of Commerce of Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, the value of diamonds exported (chiefly sent through the Post Office) must have been more than a million pounds sterling for the year. With this correction, the apparent discrepancy between the amount of imports and exports is approximately accounted for—a small difference always occuring, from the geographical position of the Colony as a place of call for shipping, and the supply of the military and naval establishments.

The greater part of the Colonial productions, it will be seen, consists of raw materials, which are sent to the home markets for manufacture ; but there are many of them which in their pre-

paration, or in their conversion into articles of domestic consumption, employ a great deal of local capital and labour. In Cape Town and its suburbs the manipulation of wines, the manufacture of brandy, and the brewing of beer are industries of large proportions. There are also many extensive steam milling establishments for converting wheat into flour of several descriptions, and for the manufacture of biscuits of first-class quality. The large workshops of the harbour and railway departments are capable of executing any mechanical requirements. Boat building, foundries, and smiths' work are also carried on by private individuals. Coachbuilding and wagon-making give continual occupation to many workmen, there being a great trade carried on with the inland districts in the supply of carts and wagons. Besides these, there are the ordinary trades of cabinet-making, building, plumbing, watchmaking, printing, bookbinding, saddlery and harness making, painting, shoemaking, tailoring, &c.

The woods of the Colony comprise upwards of a hundred different kinds ; and many of them are extensively used for economic purposes, such as house building, wagon making, furniture, and cabinet work. Experience has proved that for wagon and carriage-building in our climate, the indigenous timber is far superior to any imported. Yellowwood is one of the finest forest trees ; it is often found with a circumference of from 25 to 35 feet. The wood resembles satinwood in grain and colour, and takes a fine polish. It is used not only for all interior work in houses,

for doors, floors, beams, rafters, &c., but also for furniture. It is a matter of surprise that so beautiful a wood has not been cut up into veneer, and extensively exported. Stocks for wagon wheels are principally made out of Yellowwood and Keur Boom. Stinkwood is a still more durable wood, close grained, tough, takes a beautiful polish, and is of every variety and shade of colour, from pale yellow to black, like ebony. It can be used for almost any purpose, and is obtainable in almost any size, but is principally cut up in the forest in planks of 3 and 4 inches thick, and from 12 to 30 inches wide. It makes splendid gun-stocks, and at one period the War Department in England contemplated using stinkwood instead of walnut for the purpose, but the idea was abandoned principally on account of the weight of the timber. For furniture and all kinds of turners' work, this wood is unrivalled,—the handsome chair of the Speaker of the House of Assembly in the Cape Parliament House, is made entirely of it. Assegai, frequently called the Cape lancewood, is one of our hardest and heaviest woods, is very tough and elastic, very close-grained, of a light red colour, used principally for spokes, and in every part of coach or wagon work where great strength is required in small scantlings. White Els, is excellent for panneling of carriages, carts, &c. Red Els is used in larger scantlings for wagon work. Essen-hout, or Cape ash is used largely for building purposes, the same as yellowwood, principally for lentils, joints, &c.; not so suitable for furniture. Ironwood or yzerhout (black or white),

as its name implies, is of very great strength, and like assegai is used where great strength in regard to size is required, such as for wooden wagon axles, schamels, tongues, &c.; it is also excellent for cogs of machine wheels, being nearly equal to olive wood (or Cape lignum vitae) for that purpose. Whitepear, redpear and milkwood are used mostly for felloes; these woods not being of a greasy nature hold the tires well. Sneezewood has been proved to be superior to any other wood for telegraph poles, piles, sleepers, posts for fencing, &c., on account of its durability and great strength. There are many other woods which are serviceable for coach and wagon work, but the above are those most in use. South African timber seldom meets with a fair trial, from the fact that in most instances the timber is cut down indiscriminately at all seasons of the year, without reference to the condition of the sap, and is frequently used without being seasoned for more than a month or so, and then by the forced process of drying over an oven.

Leather manufacture has been in operation for some years, and there are several large tanneries, both in Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Graham's Town. The raw staple and the very best materials for preparing it are to be had in any quantity. Many indigenous plants and trees, such as kreuppelboom, wagenboom, klip-hout, wild plum (shumac), assegai, saffran, and mimosa, as well as the European oak, are in common use for tanning purposes.

Fellmongering has lately been commenced, and many skins, formerly little valued, are bought

up, and by this process have the wool upon them turned to account, as well as the pelt preserved. Soapmaking has also been established, and the colonial article is supplanting the imported one. There are gas works at Cape Town and Port Elizabeth.

Woolwashing is an important business, and large woolwashing works are distributed throughout the country. The "Waverley Mill," on the Cape Town and Worcester line of railway, is one of the largest and most perfect in the West. The chief place for this industry, however, is in the vicinity of Uitenhage. There are now eleven establishments there, situate along the Zwartkops River, the soft and alkaline properties of whose water render it peculiary adapted for the purpose. £200,000 capital is invested in these establishments; they are all worked by steam, and employ from 400 to 500 hands, mostly natives, male and female.

In some districts there are extensive and valuable salt pans. One in the ward Coega, nine miles from Uitenhage, is valued for rateable purposes at £18,000. The salt produced there is of excellent quality; and the quantity appears inexhaustible, for although 40,000 muids per annum are taken out there is no apparent diminution of yield. Another large salt pan is situate north of Calvinia, and is named the "Great Commissioner's Pan." It is about ten or eleven miles long by a little more than a mile broad. Many of the squatting farmers employ themselves in gathering salt there, and selling it in the neighbouring divisions.

Fishing is carried on in all the bays which indent the coast. At some places there are large private establishments for the curing and export of the bountiful treasures of the deep, which gives employment to numbers of the coloured people. The value of the industry at Kalk Bay and Table Bay is estimated at £35,000, inclusive of home consumption.

Of the mineral resources of the Colony, copper has been the chief product—the mines of Namaqualand having been in operation now for the last twenty years. The existence of copper in that locality was known nearly two centuries ago, and as early as 1685 attempts to turn it to account were made by the Dutch Company's Governor, Van der Stell, and afterwards by others, but without success. The want of fuel and the difficulties of transport in those days were probably insurmountable obstacles to enterprise. It was only twenty-five years ago that the working of the mines was commenced by a Cape Town firm, the late Messrs. Phillips & King, now King & Son. They opened the ground at Springbok, which then was a desolate place, with merely a mud cabin and a few mat huts occupied by the natives. The first eleven tons of ore were shipped by the steamer *Bosphorus* on the 31st August, 1852. Since then upwards of 110,000 tons averaging 30 per cent. of copper, have been shipped. The exports for several years have been 7,000, and it is rapidly approaching to 12,000 tons per annum.

The principal mining station is Ookiep, situate five miles north of Springbok, and ninety

miles from Port Nolloth, with which it is connected by a railway. There is a population of 2,000 on the place, a portion of whom work under ground and the remainder on the surface, in the different occupations connected with the mine. A number of these are Cornish men and skilled European artisans; but there are also labourers from St. Helena, and Hottentots, Bastards, Damaras, and other natives employed.

Again at Spectakel, twenty miles from Springbok, and near to the junction of the Buffels and Schaap Rivers, there is another mine with a population of about 600; and at the Concordia mines, eight miles north-east of Ookiep, there is also an establishment and a number of people employed.

In 1860 Messrs. Phillips & King retired, deservedly enriched by their enterprise and energy, and their property was transferred to the Cape Copper Mining Company (Limited). From that time the development of the mineral wealth of the district has been most marked. Skilled labour and machinery were introduced, new centres were opened, a railway constructed from the seaport towards the mines, and the whole business conducted under a well arranged system of administration and management. As a mercantile success, the result has been highly satisfactory. Their principal mine is that of "Ookiep," and the richness of its yield may be judged of from the fact that in 1870 it yielded 5,300 tons of ore, at an average per centage of 29·38; in 1871 it gave 6,071, at an average of 32 per cent.; and in 1872 it yielded 6,900 tons,

with a percentage of 33·25 ; in 1873, 3,6955 tons with 32⅝ per cent ; in 1874, 9,185 tons, with 31½ per cent., and in 1875 about 10,000 tons with 31 per cent. The average yield lately has been 1,000 tons per month, and the mining engineer's estimate of the ore in reserve,—that is in sight but not yet brought to surface—is 30,000 tons.

A manganese mine has been opened on the top of the Drakenstein mountains, about thirty miles from Cape Town. It is now being worked by a private company. An aerial wire tramway five miles long, on strutted supports and propelled by stationary engines at the two extremities of the line, has been constructed from the mine to the foot of the mountain, for the purpose of facilitating the transport of the manganese to the railway station at the Paarl. The ore is extremely plentiful and rich, yielding from 70 to 90 per cent.

In the north-eastern districts of Albert, Aliwal North, and Wodehouse, coal has been worked for some time past, and many hundred tons are used for local consumption within a radius of 80 miles from the pit's mouth ; beyond that distance the cost of carriage is prohibitive. Although its quality is not equal to the best English varieties, this coal is of great economic importance to the tract of country where it occurs, as fuel is scarce, —that ordinarily obtainable being dried manure from sheep kraals, or mimosa sticks. The per centage of ash in the various layers of coal from two of the workings at Vice's and Hattingh's, ranges from 17 to 27 per cent. Another working at the Indwe yields a superior quality.

But the most marvellous mining industry in South Africa is in Griqualand West, where riches exceeding all the dreams of Fancy have been dug out of the soil. Diamonds were first found there along the banks of the Vaal River; they used to be washed out of the surface gravel by a "cradle," and considering the rude and imperfect nature of the process, the quantity then found and the superior quality of the stones are suggestive of vast treasures still lying concealed.* When, in 1871, the "dry diggings" were discovered, the river-banks were soon deserted, and the New Rush, De Beer's, Du Toit's Pan and Bultfontein became the attraction. Of these the New Rush—now known as the Kimberley Mine—has proved the most productive; those who should be best informed, through a knowledge of the diggers' accounts at the banks for shipment, estimate the yield of diamonds from that time until now at upwards of £12,000,000.

The area of the diamondiferous ground in the mine covers only nine acres. This has been divided for working purposes into "claims" of a little over 100 square yards. Owing to its extraordinary richness, however, the demand for the ground has been so great that, to meet it, the claims were subdivided in some instances into portions as small as the sixteenth of a claim. From continued excavations the place has now assumed its natural form of a crater or funnel, reaching in its lowest depths to 200 and 300 feet,

* The largest diamond found on the Vaal River was an irregular octahedron of 288½ carats, now known as the Stewart diamond.

and honeycombed in every part with the pits formed by the diggers.

To see the mine in operation is one of the most remarkable sights of the world. The scene has been well described as resembling nothing so much as a vast human ant hill, with the swarming inhabitants busy repairing damages ; and above all this surging mass, there is a labyrinthine network of wire ropes stretching overhead, on which are hauled up the buckets of soil, to be washed and sorted. The greater cost of working ground in the claims, especially now, when increasing depth adds fresh difficulties to working, has of late produced a tendency to re-amalgamate rather than to sub-divide, insomuch that the number of individual holdings in the mine is now only a few hundred, whilst at one time they were as many as one thousand.

Up to the present, although different parts of the mine have varied in value, there is no evidence to show that the whole of the mine is at all less diamondiferous now than it has been at any time during its working ; and Mr. Oates, the Government Mining Engineer, says :—" There does not appear the least evidence on which to base a theory of convergence as greater depth is attained. There have been conjectures raised respecting the area of the mine diminishing as greater depth is attained, but there are really no grounds whatever for such conjecture, and the opposite, that the walls diverge instead of converge, may be argued with equal force."

Within the Colony proper, and along the basin of the Orange River, in the districts of Victoria

West and Carnarvon, diamonds have been picked up on the surface of the country, and there is a possibility that spots may yet be found corresponding to the Kimberley Mine. Besides diamonds, in the category of our ornamental stones may be included various-coloured agates, garnets, amethysts, rose quartz, fibrous quartz, tourmaline, chalcedony, heliotrope or bloodstone, red and yellow jasper, steatite, &c., found along the north-western border. Lead ore, hæmatite, and other iron ore, occur in many localities. Building stone is abundant all over the country, and also beds of clay, some of which could be used for the finest pottery. There are several qualities of freestone, some being suitable for mill and grinding stones, as well as for architectural purposes. Granite of a remarkably fine class is quarried from the Paarl. Marble and limestones of various ages occur along most of the coast districts.

Numerous other substances of economic value may be discovered, if a systematic examination of the country is made—for it is true of the Colony, as of Africa generally, that it is always rewarding search with something new.

NATAL.

NATAL, "the garden colony of South Africa," as it has been termed, covers an area of 20,212 square miles. It has a seaboard of 150 miles stretching along the coast from the mouth of the Umtamfuna River, in lat. 31° 10′, to the mouth of the Tugela in lat. 29° 10′ S. The Drakensberg mountains form its inland boundary, separating it from the high plains of Basutoland, the Free State, and Transvaal. The latest official returns of the population give a total of 307,501. Of this number 19,990 are whites; 9,147 Indian coolies, and 277,864 natives; but it is acknowledged that the estimate of the natives is an approximate one, and they are usually set down as mustering 350,000. Nearly one-half of the European population are settled in the principal towns—the seaport of Durban containing 4,836, and Pietermaritzburg, the seat of government, 60 miles inland, having 4,300. Th remainder are scattered over the villages, missio stations, plantations, and farms.

Along the coast districts, sugar, ginger, c arrowroot, and most of the plants of tropical d constitution grow, and thrive.

growing has become the most important industry, and a large amount of capital is employed in it. On the hill-sides and the valleys, fields of cane, mills and mill-houses, coolies' quarters, and comfortable planters' residences, some occupying most charming situations, form the main features of a landscape, where twenty years ago the untilled soil was covered with jungle. The annual crop of sugar has for the last two or three years exceeded 10,000 tons—its value averaging £20 per ton. Coffee-growing is another enterprise which has been largely engaged in on the coast, and for a time with great success. In 1871 the yield was over 2,000,000 lbs., but since then there has been a falling off in the crop, attributed by some to the unsuitableness of the plants introduced, and by others to injudicious and erroneous methods of cultivation.

Leaving the coastlands for the central and upland districts, at a distance of 16 miles from the sea, a region of green hilly pastures is entered upon, where cattle and horses thrive, and where wheat and oats, the potato, and many of the food crops of Europe can be produced. On the uplands, sheep are becoming abundant, and with care are doing well. The exports of wool from the port of Natal in 1875 was 8,108,397 lbs. valued at £389,257. Indian corn and tobacco grow verywhere, both on the coast and in the lands, in the greatest luxuriance. Coal seams considerable thickness extend for many miles e division of Newcastle, Klip River country. the railways, now in course of construc- e extended in that direction, these co

THE TRANSVAAL.

THE TRANSVAAL embraces the territory between the Vaal River and Limpopo River, comprising an area of about 115,000 square miles. Its eastern boundary is the Lobombo hill-range, separating it from the Portuguese possession of Delagoa Bay, and the Drakensberg, dividing it from the Zulu tribes. Its western border is the Maquassi Spruit or Pogola River, separating it from the Batlapin tribes. The white population of the State is computed at 40,000, and the coloured population at from 650,000 to 800,000 souls. The town of Pretoria is the Seat of Government.

The Transvaal possesses very superior natural advantages. It has a well-watered and fertile soil, rich pastures, valuable mineral deposits, and a climate at all seasons favourable to Europeans.

For the purposes of description, it may be conveniently divided into three classes of country —namely, the Hooge-veld (high country); the Banken-veld (terrace country); and the Bush-veld (bush country).

The portion lying south of the 25th parallel of latitude—from Leydenberg down to New Scotland, thence along the Drakensberg and extending westward through Nazareth along

Witwater's-rand to the southward of Pretoria to Lichtenberg, at the sources of the Hart River, —belongs to the first-class—the high veld. Most of this is a magnificent upland country, having an altitude of 4,000 feet, and in some parts as much as 7,000 feet, above the sea-level. The climate is healthy. The winter months, from the middle of May to October, being very cold, but dry ; and the rains descending in heavy down-pours only in summer.

The "Banken-veld" is that portion of the country lying at the edge of the high veld along the slopes of the Drakensberg or Witwater's-rand where it breaks off into the lower level or Bush veld. It is nowhere very wide, and consists of broken hilly or mountainous land, intersected by deep ravines or kloofs, very picturesque as regards scenery, well watered, and generally well wooded with small trees. It possesses the advantage of good grazing for both summer and winter. Horned cattle thrive well all the year round ; while sheep and horses do well on some farms, and on all during the winter months. These lands, when not too hilly, are admirably adapted for cultivation, as the abundant supply of water allows of irrigation. Minerals of value will probably be found when properly searched for.

The "Bush-veld" includes all the country north and north-east of the line previously alluded to ; much of it is less than 4,000 feet above sea level, and some portions therefore are not healthy, for which reason even the Kafirs who live there occasionally suffer from fever.